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# CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *December*, 1781.

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*Philosophical Transactions, of the Royal Society of London. Vol. LXXI. For the Year 1781. Part I. 4to. 7s. 6d. sewed.*  
L. Davis.

**P**Refixed to this part of the *Philosophical Transactions* is a Speech, delivered to the Royal Society, on the 30th of November, 1780, by their president, sir Joseph Banks. The incident which gave occasion to this address, was the Society's having that day assembled, for the first time, in the new apartments, which have been granted it by his majesty. Sir Joseph celebrates the royal munificence with great zeal, in a strain of merited panegyric, intermixed with some reflexions tending to animate the Royal Society in the prosecution of science. The Speech, being but short, we shall insert it, for the gratification of our readers.

‘The emotions of gratitude inspired by the very place in which, by the munificence of our Royal Patron, we are now for the first time assembled, render it impossible for me to neglect the opportunity which this season, when ye have been used to hear yourselves addressed from the chair, affords me, of offering my small tribute of acknowledgement for a benefit so eminently calculated to promote the honour and advancement of this society.

‘Established originally by the munificence of a royal founder! fostered and encouraged since that time by every successive monarch who has swayed the British sceptre, ye have ever proved yourselves worthy the favour of your royal Protectors. A Newton, who pruned his infant wing under your auspices, when his maturer flights soared to worlds unmeasurably distant, still thought

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a place among you an honourable distinction. A Newton's immortal labors, a Boyle, a Flamsteed, a Halley, a Ray, and many others, of whom I trust it is needless to remind you, have made ample returns for the patronage of former monarchs.

But bountiful as the encouragement ye have received from former patrons has ever been, the favors which science has, through your intercession, received from his present majesty (whom God long preserve!) have eminently outdone their most extensive ideas of liberality. Ample funds, by him provided, have enabled you to reward men of extensive knowledge and ability, for spending whole years in the service of science; observing twice the transit of the planet Venus over the disk of the sun. At your request, the publick defrayed the expence of conveying them to the most distant parts of the globe we inhabit, where the purposes of their mission, so important to the science of astronomy, could best be fulfilled; while ye alone enjoy among your fellow-academies the reputation of having both sent and rewarded them.

And more; those very donations were so liberally planned by that attention to science which has ever distinguished his present majesty's reign, and will for ever bear testimony of his enlarged mind, and disposition favorable to the advancement of true knowledge, that the surplus alone enabled you, with his royal approbation, to institute experiments on the attraction of mountains, amidst the barren and bleak precipices of the Highlands of Scotland, which then, for the first time, beheld instruments of the nicest construction transported to the summits of their pathless crags, and men, used to other habitations, voluntarily residing in temporary huts, eager to express a grateful sense of their royal patron's liberality, by thus promoting to the utmost the cause of science, in which they were, under his protection, embarked.

Gifts like these, unsolicited and unconditionally bestowed, might have satisfied the impulses even of a princely munificence; but not so with our royal patron. Amply informed in every branch of real knowledge, he resolved to bestow a still more distinguished mark of his favour on science which he loved, and in this his last best gift has fulfilled his royal resolution.

Such a donation, so suited to our present prosperous and flourishing condition under his royal patronage and protection, is admirably calculated to increase the respect, great as it is, which ye have ever received from the learned of all Europe, placing you at once, in every point of splendid accommodation, as much above all foreign academies, as the labors of your learned predecessors had raised you above them in literary reputation.

Let then gratitude to a sovereign, from whom ye have received such conspicuous encouragement, engage you, by an application to a promotion of the sciences ye severally possess, to de-



deserve a continuance of his royal favor; to measure your future exertions by the standard of his princely liberality; and thus shew the world, that ye still are, as ye always have been, worthy the patronage of your king!

The first article presents us with the Natural History and Description of the Tyger-cat of the Cape of Good Hope. By John Reinhold Forster, LL.D.—Dr. Forster distinguishes the genus of cat into three subdivisions. The first comprehends such as have long hair or manes on their necks: the second such as have remarkable long tails: and the third those which have a brush of hair on the tips of their ears, with shorter tails than the second subdivision. The doctor informs us, that after a minute examination of a tyger-cat, which was brought him at the Cape of Good Hope, he found its manners and economy perfectly analogous to those of our domestic cats. The description of this cat is accurately delivered in Latin, in the manner of Linnæus.

Art. II. Experiments and Observations on the specific Gravities and attractive Powers of various saline Substances. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. F. R. S.

Art. III. Account of the violent Storm of Lightning at East-bourn, in Suffex, Sept. 17, 1780; communicated by Owen Salusbury Brereton, Esq. F. R. and A. S.

Art. IV. An Account of the Harmattan, a singular African Wind. By Matthew Dobson, M. D. F. R. S. communicated by John Fothergill, M. D. F. R. S.—The harmattan is a periodical wind, which blows from the interior parts of Africa towards the Atlantic Ocean. It rises indiscriminately at any hour of the day, at any time of the tide, or at any period of the moon. It continues sometimes only a day or two, sometimes five or six days; and has been known to last fifteen or sixteen days. It blows with a moderate force, not quite so strong as the sea-breeze. Of the peculiar qualities of the harmattan, Dr. Dobson, who had his first information from Mr. Norris, gives the following account.

A fog or haze is one of the peculiarities which always accompanies the harmattan. The gloom occasioned by this fog is so great, as sometimes to make even near objects obscure. The English fort at Whydah stands about the midway between the French and Portuguese forts, and not quite a quarter of a mile from either; yet very often from thence neither of the other forts can be discovered. The sun, concealed the greatest part of the day, appears only about a few hours about noon, and then of a mild red, exciting no painful sensation on the eye.

As the particles which constitute the fog are deposited on the grass, the leaves of trees, and even on the skin of the negroes, so as to make them appear whitish, I recommended to Mr. Norris

the use of a good microscope, as this might possibly discover something concerning the nature of these particles. "I was prevented, says Mr. Norris, by the bad state of my health from availing myself of the microscope; neither could I discover any thing by the taste, or by exposing plates covered thinly with melasses, for when I had dropped an acid or alkali into the water in which I had dissolved the melasses, nothing followed to enable me to judge of the nature of the particles. Surely they cannot be insects, or animalculæ of insects? for we have no appearance of any thing produced from the myriads of them which are deposited on the earth. They do not flow far over the surface of the sea: at two or three miles distance from the shore the fog is not so thick as on the beach; and at four or five leagues distance it is intirely lost, though the harmattan itself is plainly felt for ten or twelve leagues, and blows fresh enough to alter the course of the current."

'Extreme dryness makes another extraordinary property of this wind. No dew falls during the continuance of the harmattan; nor is there the least appearance of moisture in the atmosphere. Vegetables of every kind are very much injured; all tender plants, and most of the productions of the garden, are destroyed; the grass withers, and becomes dry like hay; the vigorous ever-greens likewise feel its pernicious influence; the branches of the lemon, orange, and lime trees droop, the leaves become flaccid, wither, and, if the harmattan continues to blow for ten or twelve days, are so parched as to be easily rubbed to dust between the fingers: the fruit of these trees, deprived of its nourishment, and stunted in its growth, only appears to ripen, for it becomes yellow and dry, without acquiring half the usual size. The natives take this opportunity of the extreme dryness of the grass and young trees to set fire to them, especially near their roads, not only to keep those roads open to travellers, but to destroy the shelter which long grass, and thickets of young trees, would afford to skulking parties of their enemies. A fire thus lighted flies with such rapidity as to endanger those who travel: in that situation a common method of escape is, on discovering a fire to windward, to set the grass on fire to leeward, and then follow your own fire. There are other extraordinary effects produced by the extreme dryness of the harmattan. The covers of books, Mr. Norris informs me, even closely shut up in a trunk, and lying among his cloaths, were bent as if they had been exposed to the fire. Household furniture is also much damaged: the pannels of doors and of wainscot split, and any veneered work flies to pieces. The joints of a well-laid floor of seasoned wood open sufficiently to lay one's finger in them; but become as close as before on the ceasing of the harmattan. The seams also in the sides and decks of ships are much injured and become very leaky, though the planks are two or three inches in thickness. Iron-bound casks require the hoops to be frequently driven tighter; and a cask of rum or brandy, with wooden hoops,

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can scarcely be preserved; for, unless a person attends to keep it moistened, the hoops fly off.

The parching effects of this wind are likewise evident on the external parts of the body. The eyes, nostrils, lips, and palate, are rendered dry and uneasy, and drink is often required, not so much to quench thirst, as to remove a painful aridity in the fauces. The lips and nose become sore, and even chapped; and though the air be cool, yet there is a troublesome sensation of prickling heat on the skin. If the harmattan continues four or five days, the scarf skin peels off, first from the hands and face, and afterwards from the other parts of the body, if it continues a day or two longer. Mr. Norris observed, that when sweat was excited by exercise on those parts which were covered by his cloaths from the weather, it was peculiarly acrid, and tasted, on applying his tongue to his arm, something like spirit of hart's-horn diluted with water.

Art. V. Essay on a new Method of applying the Screw. By Mr. William Hunter, Surgeon; communicated by Lieutenant General Melville, F. R. S.—This new method of applying the screw consists in making a male screw move in a female one, there being one thread to the inch more in one than in the other, and is something similar in principle to Nonius's division of lines. The effect is, that for each turn of the handle, or of the male screw, the female screw will advance forward, only by the small fractional part of an inch, whose numerator is 1, and denominator the product of the two numbers of threads to an inch. Thus, if the former screw has 10 threads to an inch, and the latter 11; then each turn will advance the latter screw only ( $\frac{1}{10} \times \frac{1}{11}$  or)  $\frac{1}{110}$  of an inch. This contrivance may sometimes be useful, either in cases of great accuracy, or to raise very heavy weights to small heights. But the machinery will generally be complex, cumbersome, and expensive.

Art. VI. An Account of the Turkey. By Thomas Pennant, Esq. F. R. S. communicated by Joseph Banks, Esq. P. R. S.—After describing the turkey with great exactness, Mr. Pennant proves, by a variety of authorities, that it is a native of America.

Art VII. Account of a Nebula in Coma Berenices. By Edward Pigott, Esq. In a Letter to Nevil Maskelyne, D. D. F. R. S. and Astronomer Royal.—The mean place of this new nebula is here determined to be in  $191^{\circ} 28' 38''$  declination, and  $22^{\circ} 53'$  north declination, for April 20, 1779.

Art. VIII. Double Stars discovered in 1779, at Frampton-house, Glamorganshire. By Nathaniel Pigott, Esq. F. R. S. Foreign Member of the Academies of Brussels and Caen, and

Correspondent of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris; communicated by Nevil Maskelyne, D. D. F. R. S. and Astronomer Royal.

Art. IX. An Account of the Ganges and Burrampooter Rivers. By James Rennel, Esq. F. R. S. communicated by Joseph Banks, Esq. P. R. S.—The Burrampooter has been but lately known in Europe as a capital river, yet it is here represented as longer and wider than the Ganges, to which it is very similar, both arising from the same mountains, and uniting a little before they enter the ocean at the bay of Bengal.

The Ganges and Burrampooter rivers, together with their numerous branches and adjuncts, intersect the country of Bengal in such a variety of directions, as to form the most complete and easy inland navigation that can be conceived. So equally and admirably diffused are those natural canals, over a country that approaches nearly to a perfect plane, that, after excepting the lands contiguous to Burdwan, Birboom, &c. (which altogether do not constitute a sixth part of Bengal) we may fairly pronounce, that every other part of the country has, even in the dry season, some navigable stream within twenty-five miles at farthest, and more commonly within a third part of that distance.

It is supposed, that this inland navigation gives constant employment to 30,000 boatmen. Nor will it be wondered at, when it is known, that all the salt, and a large proportion of the food consumed by ten millions of people are conveyed by water within the kingdom of Bengal and its dependencies. To these must be added, the transport of the commercial exports and imports, probably to the amount of two millions sterling per annum; the interchange of manufactures and products throughout the whole country; the fisheries; and the article of travelling.

These rivers, which a late ingenious gentleman aptly termed sisters and rivals (he might have said twin sisters, from the contiguity of their springs), exactly resemble each other in length of course; in bulk, until they approach the sea; in the smoothness and colour of their waters; in the appearance of their borders and islands; and, finally, in the height to which their floods rise with the periodical rains. Of the two, the Burrampooter is the largest; but the difference is not obvious to the eye. They are now well known to derive their sources from the vast mountains of Tibet; from whence they proceed in opposite directions; the Ganges seeking the plains of Hindoostan (or Indostan) by the west; and the Burrampooter by the east; both pursuing the early part of their course through rugged vallies and defiles, and seldom visiting the habitations of men. The Ganges, after wandering about 750 miles through these mountainous regions, issues forth a deity to the superstitious, yet gladdened, inhabit-



ent of Hindoostan. From Hurdwar (or Hurdoar) in latitude  $30^{\circ}$ , where it gushes through an opening in the mountains, it flows with a smooth navigable stream through delightful plains during the remainder of its course to the sea (which is about 1350 miles) diffusing plenty immediately by means of its living productions; and secondarily by enriching the adjacent lands, and affording an easy means of transport for the productions of its borders. In a military view, it opens a communication between the different posts, and serves in the capacity of a military way through the country; renders unnecessary the forming of magazines; and infinitely surpasses the celebrated inland navigation of North America, where the carrying places not only obstruct the progress of an army, but enable the adversary to determine his place and mode of attack with certainty.

In its course through the plains, it receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none smaller than the Thames, besides as many of lesser note. It is owing to this vast influx of streams, that the Ganges exceeds the Nile so greatly in point of magnitude, whilst the latter exceeds it in length of course by one-third. Indeed, the Ganges is inferior in this last respect, to many of the northern rivers of Asia; though I am inclined to think that it discharges as much or more water than any of them, because those rivers do not lie within the limits of the periodical rains.

The bed of the Ganges is, as may be supposed, very unequal in point of width. From its first arrival in the plains at Hurdwar, to the conflux of the Jumnah (the first river of note that joins it) its bed is generally from a mile to a mile and a quarter wide; and, compared with the latter part of its course, tolerably straight. From hence, downward, its course becomes more winding, and its bed consequently wider, till, having alternately received the waters of the Gogra, Soane, and Gunduck, besides many smaller streams, its bed has attained its full width; although, during the remaining 500 miles of its course it receives many other principal streams. Within this space it is, in the narrowest parts of its bed, half a mile wide, and in the widest, three miles; and that, in places where no islands intervene. The stream within this bed is always either increasing, or decreasing, according to the season. When at its lowest (which happens in April) the principal channel varies from 400 yards to a mile and a quarter; but is commonly about three quarters of a mile.

The whole course of the river is then particularly described, with its bed, the velocity of its current, its windings, and the causes of them, &c. The curious particulars of the annual swelling and overflowing of the Ganges are thus described.

It appears to owe its increase as much to the rain water that falls in the mountains contiguous to its source, and to the sources of the great northern rivers that fall into it, as to that which

falls in the plains of Hindoostan; for it rises fifteen feet and a half out of thirty-two (the sum total of its rising) by the latter end of June: and it is well known, that the rainy season does not begin in most of the flat countries till about that time. In the mountains it begins early in April; and by the latter end of that month, when the rain-water has reached Bengal, the rivers begin to rise, but by very slow degrees; for the increase is only about an inch per day for the first fortnight. It then gradually augments to two and three inches before any quantity of rain falls in the flat countries; and when the rain becomes general, the increase on a medium is five inches per day. By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than a hundred miles in width; nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated spot (the artificial mound of some deserted village) appearing like an island.

The inundations in Bengal differ from those in Egypt in this particular, that the Nile owes its floods entirely to the rain-water that falls in the mountains near its source; but the inundations in Bengal are as much occasioned by the rain that falls there, as by the waters of the Ganges; and as a proof of it, the lands in general are overflowed to a considerable height long before the bed of the river is filled. It must be remarked, that the ground adjacent to the river bank, to the extent of some miles, is considerably higher than the rest of the country, and serves to separate the waters of the inundation from those of the river until it overflows. This high ground is in some seasons covered a foot or more; but the height of the inundation within, varies, of course, according to the irregularities of the ground, and is in some places twelve feet.

Even when the inundation becomes general, the river still shews itself, as well by the grass and reeds on its banks, as by its rapid and muddy stream; for the water of the inundation acquires a blackish hue, by having been so long stagnant amongst grass and other vegetables: nor does it ever lose this tinge, which is a proof of the predominancy of the rain water over that of the river; as the slow rate of motion of the inundation (which does not exceed half a mile per hour) is of the remarkable flatness of the country.

There are particular tracts of land, which, from the nature of their culture, and species of productions, require less moisture than others; and yet, by the lowness of their situation, would remain too long inundated, were they not guarded by dikes or dams, from so copious an inundation as would otherwise happen from the great elevation of the surface of the river above them. These dikes are kept up at an enormous expence; and yet do not always succeed, for want of tenacity in the soil of which they are composed.

During



During the swollen state of the river, the tide totally loses its effect of counteracting the stream; and in a great measure that of ebbing and flowing, except very near the sea. It is not uncommon for a strong wind, that blows up the river for any continuance, to swell the waters two feet above the ordinary level at that season: and such accidents have occasioned the loss of whole crops of rice. A very tragical event happened at Luckipour in 1763, by a strong gale of wind conspiring with a high spring tide, at a season when the periodical flood was within a foot and half of its highest pitch. It is said that the waters rose six feet above the ordinary level. Certain it is, that the inhabitants of a considerable district, with their houses and cattle, were totally swept away; and, to aggravate their distress, it happened in a part of the country which scarce produces a single tree for a drowning man to escape to.

Embarkations of every kind traverse the inundation: those bound upwards, availing themselves of a direct course and still water, at a season when every stream rushes like a torrent. The wind too, which at this season blows regularly from the south-east, favours their progress; insomuch, that a voyage, which takes up nine or ten days by the course of the river when confined within its banks, is now effected in six. Husbandry and grazing are both suspended; and the peasant traverses in his boat, those fields which in another season he was wont to plow; happy that the elevated site of the river banks place the herbage they contain, within his reach, otherwise his cattle must perish.

The following is a table of the gradual increase of the Ganges and its branches, according to observations made at Jellinghy and Dacca.

	At Jellinghy.		At Dacca.	
	Ft.	In.	Ft.	In.
In May it rose	6	0	2	4
June	9	6	4	6
July	12	6	5	6
In the first half of August	4	0	1	11
	32	0	14	3

These observations were made in a season, when the waters rose rather higher than usual; so that we may take 31 feet for the medium of the increase.

The inundation is nearly at a stand for some days preceding the middle of August, when it begins to run off; for although great quantities of rain fall in the flat countries, during August and September, yet, by a partial cessation of the rains in the mountains, there happens a deficiency in the supplies necessary to keep up the inundation. The quantity of the daily decrease of the river is nearly in the following proportion: during the latter half of August, and all September, from three to four inches; from September to the end of November, it gradually lessens from three inches to an inch and a half; and from November to the

the latter end of April, it is only half an inch per day at a medium. These proportions must be understood to relate to such parts of the river as are removed from the influence of the tides. The decrease of the inundation does not always keep pace with that of the river, by reason of the height of the banks; but after the beginning of October, when the rain has nearly ceased, the remainder of the inundation goes off quickly by evaporation, leaving the lands highly manured, and in a state fit to receive the seed, after the simple operation of plowing.

The course of the Burrampooter is next described; in the other circumstances of its overflowing, &c. it is perfectly similar to the Ganges.

On tracing this river in 1765, I was no less surprised, at finding it rather larger than the Ganges, than at its course previous to its entering Bengal. This I found to be from the east; although all the former accounts represented it as from the north: and this unexpected discovery soon led to enquiries, which furnished me with an account of its general course to within 100 miles of the place where Du Halde left the Sanpoo. I could no longer doubt, that the Burrampooter and Sanpoo were one and the same river: and to this was added the positive assurances of the Assamers, "That their river came from the north-west, through the Bootan mountains." And to place it beyond a doubt, that the Sanpoo River is not the same with the river of Ava, but that this last is the great Nou Kian of Yunan; I have in my possession a manuscript draught of the Ava River, to within 150 miles of the place where Du Halde leaves the Nou Kian, in its course towards Ava; together with very authentic information that this river (named Irabattey by the people of Ava) is navigable from the city of Ava into the province of Yunan in China.

The Burrampooter, during a course of 400 miles through Bengal, bears so intimate a resemblance to the Ganges, except in one particular, that one description may serve for both. The exception I mean is, that, during the last 60 miles before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream which is regularly from four to five miles wide, and but for its freshness might pass for an arm of the sea. Common description fails in an attempt to convey an adequate idea of the grandeur of this magnificent object; for,

“ ——— Scarce the muse  
Dares stretch her wing o’er this enormous mass  
Of rushing water; to whose dread expanse,  
Continuous depth, and wond’rous length of course,  
Our floods are rills ———  
Thus pouring on, it proudly seeks the deep,  
Whose vanquish’d tide, recoiling from the shock,  
Yields to this liquid weight ———”

Thomson’s Seasons.

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‘I have already endeavoured to account for the singular breadth of the Megna, by supposing that the Ganges once joined it where the Issamutty now does; and that their joint waters scooped out its present bed. The present junction of these two mighty rivers below Luckipour, produces a body of running fresh water, hardly to be equalled in the old hemisphere, and, perhaps, not exceeded in the new. It now forms a gulf interspersed with islands, some of which rival, in size and fertility, our Isle of Wight. The water at ordinary times is hardly brackish at the extremities of these islands; and, in the rainy season, the sea (or at least the surface of it) is perfectly fresh to the distance of many leagues out.

‘The bore (which is known to be a sudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or narrow strait) prevails in the principal branches of the Ganges, and in the Megna; but the Hoogly River, and the passages between the islands and sands situated in the gulf, formed by the confluence of the Ganges and Megna, are more subject to it than the other rivers. This may be owing partly, to their having greater embouchures in proportion to their channels, than the others have, by which means a larger proportion of tide is forced through a passage comparatively smaller; and partly, to there being no capital openings near them, to draw off any considerable portion of the accumulating tide. In the Hoogly or Calcutta River, the bore commences at Hoogly Point (the place where the river first contracts itself) and is perceptible above Hoogly Town; and so quick is its motion, that it hardly employs four hours in travelling from one to the other, although the distance is near 70 miles. At Calcutta, it sometimes occasions an instantaneous rise of five feet: and both here, and in every other part of its track, the boats, on its approach, immediately quit the shore, and make for safety to the middle of the river.

‘In the channels, between the islands in the mouth of the Megna, &c. the height of the bore is said to exceed twelve feet; and is so terrific in its appearance, and dangerous in its consequences, that no boat will venture to pass at spring tide. After the tide is fairly past the islands, no vestige of a bore is seen, which may be owing to the great width of the Megna, in comparison with the passages between the islands; but the effects of it are visible enough, by the sudden rising of the tides.’

Art. X. Astronomical Observations on the Rotation of the Planets round their Axes, made with a View to determine whether the Earth's diurnal Motion is perfectly equable. In a Letter from Mr. William Herschel of Bath, to William Watson, M. D. F. R. S.—These observations, of the planets Jupiter and Mars, are very curious, and seemingly accurate. They succeed very well for the latter planet, whose rotation on its axis is determined within 2 or 3 seconds of time. Mr. Herschel intends to continue those observations, which will enable

enable him to ascertain the point with a still greater degree of accuracy. After which he intends to make use of the resulting time of revolution, to examine the equability of the earth's rotation, which is made the standard for all other motions.

Art. XI. Some Account of the Termites, which are found in Africa and other hot Climates. In a Letter from Mr. Henry Smeathman, of Clement's Inn, to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S.—The termites are insects, called by most travellers white ants, and hitherto very imperfectly described. Mr. Smeathman observes, that Linnæus has classed this genus erroneously; placing it among the aptera, or insects without wings; though, in its perfect state, it has four wings without any sting. The author's description is curious, and seems to have been obtained by very attentive observation.

Art. XII. An Account of several Earthquakes felt in Wales. By Thomas Pennant, Esq. F. R. S. in a Letter to Sir Joseph Banks, P. R. S.

Dear Sir, Downing, Dec. 12, 1781.

On Saturday last, between four and five in the evening, we were alarmed with two shocks of an earthquake; a slight one, immediately followed by another very violent. It seemed to come from the north-east, and was preceded by the usual noise; at present I cannot trace it farther than Holywell.

The earthquake preceding this was on the 29th of August last, about a quarter before nine in the morning. I was forewarned of it by a rumbling noise not unlike the coming of a great waggon into my court-yard. Two shocks immediately followed, which were strong enough to terrify us. They came from the north-west; were felt in Anglesea, at Caernarvon, Llanrwst, in the isle of Clwyd south of Denbigh, at this house, and in Holywell; but I could not discover that their force extended any farther.

The next in this retrograde way of enumerating these phenomena was on the 8th of September 1775, about a quarter before ten at night, the noise was such as preceded the former; and the shock so violent as to shake the bottles and glasses on the table round which myself and some company were sitting. This seemed to come from the east. I see in the Gentleman's Magazine of that year, that this shock extended to Shropshire, and quite to Bath, and to Swansea in South Wales.

The earliest earthquake I remember here was on the 10th of April 1750. It has the honour of being recorded in the Philosophical Transactions, therefore I shall not trouble you with the repetition of what I have said.

Permit me to observe, that I live near a mineral country, in a situation between lead mines and coal mines; in a sort of neutral tract, about a mile distant from the first, and half a mile from the last. On the strictest inquiry I cannot discover that



that the miners or colliers were ever sensible of the shocks under ground: nor have they ever perceived, when the shocks in question have happened, any falls of the loose and shattery strata, in which the last especially work; yet, at the same time, the earthquakes have had violence sufficient to terrify the inhabitants of the surface. Neither were these local: for, excepting the first, all may be traced to very remote parts. The weather was remarkably still at the time of every earthquake I have felt.

Art. XIII. Extract of a Letter from the Right Honourable Philip Earl Stanhope, F. R. S. to Mr. James Clow, Professor of Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. Dated Chevening, February 16, 1777. — The chief improvement his lordship makes by this method \*, is to approximate to two roots at once, by one and the same series, continued backwards as well as forwards.

Art. XIV. Extract of Two Meteorological Journals of the Weather observed at Nain in  $57^{\circ}$  North Latitude, and at Okak in  $57^{\circ} 20'$  North Latitude, both on the Coast of Labradore. Communicated by Mr. De la Trobe.

This first part of the volume concludes with the usual Meteorological Journal kept at the House of the Royal Society, by Order of the President and Council, for the year 1780. From which it appears that the means of the whole year were as follows, viz. thermometer without  $51.7$ ; thermometer within  $52.8$ ; barometer  $29.91$ ; variation of the needle  $22^{\circ} 41'$  west; and the whole quantity of rain  $17\frac{1}{2}$  inches.

*Miscellanies by the Honourable Daines Barrington. (Concluded, from p. 365.*

**I**N our last Review we gave our readers the substance of Mr. Barrington's tracts on the possibility of reaching the north pole; and an account of his enquiry, whether the turkey was known before the discovery of America: we now proceed to the remaining part of this publication, which consists of the following miscellaneous articles.

Essay II. On the Rein-Deer. [Renntier, which is usually pronounced rein-deer, signifies an animal formed for running, from the Teutonic word *rennen*, to run. Busching's Geog. vol. I. p. 345.]

It has been a generally received opinion, that the rein-deer will not live for any time south of Lapland, or that part of

• Concerning the roots of affected equations.

North

North America, which, though of a more southern latitude, equals Lapland in the rigour of its climate. Our author produces several instances to prove, that this is a vulgar error. He particularly mentions a buck-rein, which was kept near three years by Mr. Heyne, a merchant, in a close at Homerton near Hackney, and died suddenly, having been in perfect health the preceding day, in 1773.

All describers of the rein-deer take notice of the cracking noise, which they make, when they move their legs. Hoffberg attributes this noise to their separating, and afterwards bringing together the divisions of their hoofs: but he does not assign the cause of their so doing. Our author thinks, that, as these animals live in a country, which is covered with snow for a great part of the year, they naturally separate their hoofs, when their feet are to touch the ground, so as to cover a larger surface, to prevent their sinking; and that when the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted; and, by the collision of its parts, occasions the snapping, which is heard upon every motion of the rein.

Le Brun relates, that the chiefs of the Samoieds have sometimes six or eight of them to draw their traineaux, and that they never sweat, notwithstanding their being often much pressed; but pant with their tongues out, just as grey-hounds do after a severe course.

The lichen is their favourite food. Our author procured some of it; and conceives that it may be nourishing either for man or beast. We have much of the same, he says, on our own heaths.

### III. On the Bat, or Rese-Mouse.

The most interesting circumstance, relating to this animal, is its state of torpidity, during the winter. Mr. Cornish, a gentleman whom our author mentions, at Totnes in Devonshire, is, we are told, perfectly well acquainted with the lurking places of bats; and can find them, at any time during the winter, particularly in a large cavern near Torbay.

A dozen of these bats were sent up, in their state of torpidity, to Mr. John Hunter, for dissection; but they were unfortunately killed before they reached London, either by the motion of the carriage, by their not hanging in their usual attitude, or by their being deprived of their proper temperature of air.

They were kept for some time by Mr. Hunter, before he would absolutely pronounce them to be dead; and afterwards, at sir Ashton Lever's, before they were *set up*. But though they never shewed any signs of life, yet their bodies did not putrify. The same thing, says our author, I had occasion to



observe, with regard to some torpid martins, which were sent to me from Somersetshire, and which I wished Mr. Hunter to dissect. These birds also did not revive, but no signs likewise of putrefaction appeared, though they were kept a considerable time.

Here it may be observed, that a moderate heat, such as that of the bosom or hand, is the most likely to bring torpid animals to life, which are often killed by being placed too near the fire, from the common prejudice, that one cannot have too much of a good thing.

For a more immediate test of life in the animal, it will shrink either upon the touch, or holding a lighted candle near it.

#### IV. On the sudden Decay of several Trees in St. James's Park.

It is well known, that Rosamond's Pond, as well as some smaller ones within the island of St. James's Park, have lately been filled up: and it is observed, that every tree, which grew very near to their margins, has died within the ensuing year.

For this decay Mr. Barrington assigns the following reasons:—  
When a tree is planted at a distance from water, the roots spread equally in every direction in order to receive the moisture, which is necessary to carry on its growth and vegetation. When it is however placed very near to the water's edge, the roots on that side are chiefly protruded, to meet with the nourishment so immediately at hand, and for the same reason, become vastly larger than those, which are extended in any other direction. If therefore in process of time the water is dried up, the tree is left without any other supply than that which is commanded by one which is surrounded with a dry soil, at the same time that the principal roots are only to be found on one side; so that the tree is deprived of at least half the nourishment, which was necessary for its support. But it is not only where ponds or ditches have been filled, that the trees in St. James's Park have suffered, for many of the limes on the sides of the Mall are decaying very fast, and that from year to year, when they were before in a most flourishing state. I should suppose, that this alteration arises from the central walk becoming convex instead of concave, by a vast quantity of fresh gravel, which has also been laid on the two side walks. The consequence of which is, that almost all the rain which falls never reaches the roots, having so much a thicker surface to penetrate through, than when the limes were originally planted, as also by being carried off immediately to the side drains, by the convexity of the Mall, in  
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its present state. Even under the most favourable circumstances much rain must fall to moisten an inch of soil, from which the capillary parts of the roots are far removed, being probably more than twelve times that depth.'

The decay of the limes in St. James's Park may perhaps be owing to these causes. But there is another circumstance, which will have a very considerable effect on the growth of trees; and it is this: when trees, especially large ones, are planted, the workmen, who are employed in this business, generally dig a hole in the ground to the depth of half a yard, or more. And here the tree is fixed, with its roots very near a dry, impenetrable gravel. In a course of years the roots are at the ne plus ultra of all nourishment, and necessarily decay.—This absurd mode of planting fruit-trees is very often the cause of their rusty appearance, and their early decay; which would be prevented, if the young trees were planted on the surface, and a proper quantity of mould thrown around them to cover the roots. The danger of their being blown down by the wind may be easily obviated by stakes, or supporters, proportionable to the size of the trees; and these supporters would not be wanted for any considerable time, as the roots would soon extend themselves through a fertile soil.

V. On the periodical appearing and disappearing of certain Birds, at different Times of the Year.

In this tract the author does not pretend to deny, that a bird or birds may sometimes fly from Dover to Calais, or over any other such narrow strait; or that there may be a periodical sitting of certain birds from one part of a continent to another: the Royston-crow, and rock-ouzel, furnish instances of such a regular migration. What he chiefly contends for is, that it seems to be highly improbable, birds should at certain seasons, traverse large tracts of sea, or rather ocean, without leaving any of the same species behind, but the sick or wounded.

We see certain birds in particular seasons, and afterwards we see them not: from this circumstance it is inferred, that the cause of their disappearance is, their having crossed large tracts of sea.

Our author replies, that no well-attested instances can be produced of such a migration. They who send birds periodically across the sea, being pressed with this very obvious answer, have recourse to two suppositions, by which they endeavour to account for their not being observed by seamen during their passage.

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The first is, that they rise so high in the air that they become invisible. But unfortunately the rising to this extraordinary height, or the falling from it, is equally destitute of any ocular proof, as the birds being seen whilst crossing an ocean.

There is an objection to the hypothesis of birds passing seas at such an extraordinary height, arising from the known rarefaction of the air, which may possibly be inconvenient for respiration, as well as flight. If this were not really the case, one should suppose, says Mr. Barrington, that birds would frequently rise to such uncommon elevations, when they had no occasion to traverse oceans.

It has been urged by some, that the reason, why seamen do not regularly see the migration of birds, is, they choose the night and not the day for the passage.

Mr. Barrington answers: 'Though it may be allowed, that possibly birds may cross from the coast of Holland to the eastern coast of England, for example, during a long night, yet it must be dark nearly as long as it is within the Arctic circle to afford time for a bird to pass from the line to many parts of Europe, which M. de Buffon calculates may be done in about *eight* or *nine* days.

'If the passage happened in half the nights of the year which have the benefit of moon-light, the birds would be discovered by the sailors almost as well as in the day time, to which we may add that several supposed birds of passage (the fieldfare in particular) always call when on their flight, so that the seamen must be deaf, as well as blind, if such flocks of birds escape their notice.

'Other objections however remain to this hypothesis of a passage during the night.

'Most birds not only sleep during that time, but are as much incapacitated from distinguishing objects, as well as we are, in the absence of the sun: it is therefore inconceivable, that they should choose owl-light for such a distant journey.'

In this question the ornithologist ought to consider, that a journey of a night is as much as can well be allowed for one *stage* in the migration of birds. For birds want *food* and *rest*, as much as other animals; and it seems impossible to conceive, that they should be able to support a constant exertion of their wings, for any longer space of time, without refreshment.

Our author proceeds to consider all the instances, which he has been able to meet with, of any birds being actually seen, whilst they were crossing any extent of sea.

Sir Peter Collinson, in a letter printed in the *Philosophical Transactions* (1760) says: 'Sir Charles Wager had frequently informed him, that in one of his voyages home in the spring, as he came into soundings in our channel, a great flock of swallows almost covered his rigging; that they were nearly spent and famished, and were only feathers and bones; but being recruited by a night's rest, they took their flight in the morning.'

Mr. Barrington answers, 1. If these were birds, which had crossed large tracts of ice in their periodical migrations, the same accident must happen eternally, both in spring and autumn, which is not however pretended by any one. 2. The swallows are stated to be spent both by famine and fatigue; and how, he asks, were they to procure any flies or other sustenance on the rigging of the admiral's ship, though they might indeed rest themselves.

Sir Charles informs us, that he was in the channel, and within soundings. These birds therefore were probably only passing from head-land to head-land; and, being forced out by a strong wind, were obliged to settle upon the first ship they saw, or otherwise must have dropped into the sea; which I make no doubt happens to many unfortunate birds, under the same circumstances.

These observations are applicable to every other instance of the like nature.

Having shewn the improbability of the foregoing hypothesis, with respect to swallows and other birds, the author endeavours to prove, that they remain in a torpid state during the winter.

But it may be said, that as the swallows have crowded the air during the summer, in every part of Europe, since the creation, and as regularly disappear in winter, why have not the instances of their being found in a sleeping state been more frequent?

To this he answers, 1. that mankind have scarcely paid any attention to the study of natural history, till within these late years; 2. that the common labourers, who have the best chance of finding torpid birds, have scarcely any of them a doubt, with regard to this point; and, consequently, when they happen to see them in this state, make no mention of it to others, because they consider the discovery as neither uncommon, nor interesting to any one; 3. that the instinct of secreting themselves, at the proper season of the year, likewise suggests to them its being necessary to hide themselves in such holes and caverns, as may elude the search of men, and every other animal, which might prey upon them.

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Mr. Barrington refers the reader to several well authenticated instances, mentioned in the Philosophical Transactions, Birch's History of the Royal Society, &c. from whence the fact seems to be fully ascertained; and allowing this to be the case, he appeals to the partizans of migration, whether any instance can be produced, where the same animal is calculated for a state of torpidity, and, at the same time of the year, for a flight cross the ocean.

It may be objected, that, if swallows are torpid when they disappear, the same thing should happen with regard to other birds, which are not seen in particular parts of the year.

To this he replies, that some other birds, which are conceived to migrate, may be really torpid, as well as swallows. However, he supposes, that the notion, which prevails with regard to the migration of many birds, may most commonly arise from the want of observation, and ready knowledge of them, when they are seen on the wing, even by professed ornithologists. Thus the supposition of the nightingale being a bird of passage arises from not readily distinguishing it, when seen in a hedge, or on the wing.

In opposition to the opinion of those who contend for the migration of this bird, he observes, that it is scarcely ever seen to fly above twenty yards; that though common in Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, as well as in England, it is never seen or heard in Scotland\*; that it can have no inducement for crossing from the continent to us; and lastly, that it has been often seen in the winter.

There are certain birds, such as the snipe, woodcock, redwing, and fieldfare, which appear during the winter, but disappear during the summer; and it may be asked, where such birds can be supposed to breed, if they do not migrate from this island.

In answer to this objection our author alleges, that the snipe constantly breeds in the fens of Lincolnshire, Wolmar forest, and Bodmyn downs; that woodcocks, for reasons which he assigns, may not only continue with us during the summer, but also breed in large tracts of wood or bog, without being observed; and that the fieldfare and redwing may probably remain with us in summer, without being attended to; and particularly the redwing, which scarcely differs at all in appearance from the thrush.

The landrail is commonly supposed to migrate across the seas. But this, he thinks, is impossible. For when put up

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\* Q. Is this a fact?

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by the shooter, it never flies 100 yards; its motion is excessively slow, whilst the legs hang down like those of the water fowls, which have not web-feet, and which are known never to take longer flights. This bird is not very common with us in England, but is excessively so in Ireland, where it is called the corn-creek.

Now they who contend, that the landrail, because it happens to disappear in winter, must migrate across oceans, are reduced to the following dilemma: they must either suppose, that it comes from America, which is impossible; or, that it must pass over England in its way to Ireland, from the continent of Europe; and if so, no reason can be given, why more of them are not observed in this country.

VI. On the Torpidity of the Swallow-tribe when they disappear.

In this tract the author produces many well attested instances, in order to prove, that swallows pass the winter in a torpid state under water in ponds, rivers, &c. To these instances we shall add (as we happen to have the book before us) the testimony of the celebrated Huetius, who asserts, that swallows have been found in a torpid state, in hollow rocks, on the banks of the river Orne, near Caen in Normandy, 'immani numero,' in vast numbers, hanging like clusters of grapes on a vine. Huet. de Reb. ad eum pertin. p. 98.

VII. On the prevailing Notions with regard to the Cuckow.

The principal notion here *controverted* is, that the cuckow neither hatches nor rears its young. Aristotle seems to have been the author of this opinion. De Hist. Anim. ix. 29. There cannot, says the author, be a stronger proof, that the general notion about the cuckow arises from what is laid down by Aristotle, than the chapter which immediately follows, as it relates to the goatsucker, and states, that this bird sucks the teats of that quadruped. From this circumstance the goatsucker hath obtained a similar name in most languages, though probably no one, who thinks at all about matters of this sort, continues to believe, that this bird sucks the goat, any more than the hedgehog does the cow.

By the way it may be observed, that the notion of the porcupine shooting its quills, the poisonous effect of the tarantula, and ants hoarding for winter, are errors of the same nature.

The hedge-sparrow is generally supposed to be the foster-parent of the cuckow. But the bare fact of a young cuckow being fed by a hedge-sparrow, or other bird, is, our author thinks, no proof, that the egg was hatched by such a dam; because, says he, if she has young ones of her own, it appears from



from many instances of sociality in the brute creation, that she will probably take to this large foundling; and much more so, if she hath lost her own brood, or if they have forsaken her on being completely fledged.

If the hedge-sparrow is a complete mother to the young cuckow, she must not only disregard the removal of her own five eggs, but the colour of them; for the cuckow's egg is not only much larger, but is of a dirty yellow, spotted with black, whereas her own are of a fine pale blue.

Again, all other nestlings, whilst callow, want to be covered by the plumage of the dam; but how can this gigantic orphan receive such warmth from a hedge-sparrow?

The time moreover of the egg's being hatched is commonly in proportion to its size; the hedge-sparrow therefore would probably abandon it, supposing it to be addled.

It will undoubtedly be urged, that all reasons from analogy are of little weight against positive facts; to which I most readily assent. But though I have made many enquiries about this extraordinary notion, I never could hear evidence of any other circumstance to support it, except that the young cuckow had been fed by a small bird, which is by no means sufficient to prove, that it was also hatched by the hedge-sparrow. On the contrary, I have received several well attested instances of cuckows hatching and feeding their own nestlings.

#### VIII. On the Linnæan System.

In this tract Mr. Barrington takes notice of some defects in the works of Linnæus, at the same time acknowledging the distinguished abilities, and the great merit of this celebrated naturalist.

He observes, that his descriptions are frequently obscure, and sometimes unintelligible; that by comprising the animal kingdom of the whole globe, except insects, viz. beasts, birds, reptiles, and fishes, in 532 pages, octavo, he has given us very little more than a mere vocabulary; that too much time is taken up in mastering the elements of this system; that a young simpler cannot easily find out the name of an unknown plant by the directions of Linnæus; that plants can only be distinguished, on his system, while they are in flower; that the chives and pointals are too minute, too uncertain in their number, and seldom in a state proper to be examined; that his directions are useless in a collection of dried plants, that his new appellations are perplexing to the disciples of all former botanists, &c.

Most of these remarks are certainly just. The Linnæan system has been admired, more on account of its novelty, than

its utility. There is something curious in the idea of distinguishing plants by the organs of generation; but it is a provoking circumstance, that sometimes these organs cannot be distinguished without a careful dissection, and a microscope. Ease and simplicity are excellencies, to which the Linnæan system has no pretensions. Plants should be distinguished into classes by those parts, (their petals especially) which are large and plain.—There is not perhaps a better book for an English botanist than Hill's British Herbal.

IX. Particulars of an Agreement between the king of Spain and the Royal Society, for an Exchange of Natural Curiosities.

The animals of Hudson's Bay can only be procured by the king of Spain from England; and the natural productions of Peru, Chili, Buenos Ayres, and the Philippines, from the Spaniards. The Royal Society transmitted a considerable number of specimens to Madrid in 1773, but no return has yet been made to the Society on the part of his Catholic majesty.

X. An Account of Mozart, a very remarkable young Musician, Mr. Charles Wesley, Master Samuel Wesley, little Crotch, and the Earl of Mornington.

XI. Of the Deluge in the Time of Noah.

Objections to the supposition of an universal deluge:

‘He must be a more ingenious architect than even bishop Wilkins, who can contrive a single vessel large enough for Noah and his family, the beasts, fowls, reptiles, and insects, of the whole globe, together with provisions for their sustenance, during the space of a twelvemonth; whilst the lives of each animal, in this confined state, must also have continued for that time, otherwise some genus or species must have been intirely destroyed, without a new creation.

‘If we are to understand likewise the expression literally of *all*, the extirpation of the web-footed fowls would not have followed; nor of the water reptiles and insects.

‘On the other hand, there must have been a new creation of either the salt or fresh water fish, supposing the fluid which covered the face of the globe to have been either salt or fresh, as the former could not have lived a twelvemonth in water so much freshened, or the latter in an element become so much saltier.

‘How could the animals, almost peculiar to the arctic circle (a rein-deer for example), or those only found in America at present, have been procured for the ark, or insects in their different metamorphoses? How was the proper food also to be supplied for the animals of the whole globe, for a year, when many of them, particularly insects, only feed upon peculiar plants,



plants, which therefore must have continued to vegetate in part of the ark destined for a conservatory. The animals again are directed to be male and female; many of which, within the twelvemonth, would have procreated; and from what stores on board the ark was this numerous offspring to be supported?

The deluge, if universal, likewise continuing for a twelvemonth, all the annual plants of the globe must have been destroyed, not to mention both shrubs and trees, many of which would have lost all vegetative power, after they had been covered so long by water, either fresh or salt.

The advocates for a general deluge, urge, that shells of marine animals are found on the tops of mountains, which could not be conveyed thither by any other method.

Our author answers, first, that supposing the whole globe to be covered with water, what could have been the inducement to the shell-fish, many of which perhaps cannot move, to desert their proper habitation in the bed of the sea, in order to transport themselves to the top of an inland mountain, where they must immediately starve for want of their usual nourishment?

2dly. That such fossils in the cabinets of virtuosi are often reported by the seller to have been found in such places, contrary to the real fact, as the specimen, with many collectors, is on that account more valued.

3dly. That the supposed shells, impressions of plants, &c. are not always examined with sufficient candor and accuracy.

And, lastly, that subterraneous insects may have occasioned many of these strong resemblances to plants, or lusus, either by their claws, or antennæ, or perhaps by emitting a liquor, which may both excavate and discolour the stone, or other body, on which they may happen to work.

This hypothesis, though our author has taken some pains to shew its probability, will certainly be reckoned among the 'lususes' of ingenious men.

The latter part of this tract is an explanation of the Mosaic account of the deluge. The point in controversy depends principally upon the signification of the word *earth*. Our author supposes, that this term is to be confined to the country, where Noah lived; and very rightly observes, that it is used in this limited sense by many other writers, both sacred and profane.

XII. The History of the Gwedir Family, by Sir John Wynne, the first baronet of that name, who was born in 1553.

What seems to be most interesting in this piece are some anecdotes and circumstances, which relate to the more immediate ancestors of the author, as they are strongly characteristic of the manners and way of living in the principality, during that period. In other respects, it has only the merit of a Welch pedigree.

XIII. A Letter intended for Dodsley's Museum, on the English and French writers. The plan of this piece is taken from *The Battle of the Books*.

XIV. A Dialogue on the Ancient Tragedies, written at Oxford in 1746.

XV. Ohthere's Voyage, and the Geography of the 9th Century illustrated.

Ohthere's Voyage to the Northern Seas is included in the Anglo-Saxon version of Orosius, translated and published by Mr. Barrington in 1773.

When King Alfred\* came to this part of Orosius's Geography, it is supposed, that he consulted Ohthere and Wulfstan, who had lived in the northern parts of Europe, which the ancients were little acquainted with, and took down this account from their own mouths.

This is a curious relique of antiquity. But the geography is obscure and uncertain. And our northern travellers most probably amused his majesty with stories of their own invention, the known privilege of travellers.

XVI. The Journal of a Spanish Voyage, in 1775, to explore the Coast of America, northward of California.

This account of an eight months navigation on the unfrequented coast of America, to the latitude of  $57^{\circ} 57'$  will be a useful addition to geography, especially as Capt. Cook had so few opportunities of examining the same continent, having, it is said, been prevented by unfavourable winds.—

In the course of these dissertations the learned and ingenious author has taken occasion to explode several vulgar errors; for which he particularly deserves the thanks of every philosophical reader.

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*History of Quadrupeds. In two Volumes. 4to. 1 l. 11 s. 6 d. White.*

**I**T cannot but afford great satisfaction to all the lovers of natural knowledge, to see a general History of Quadrupeds executed by such a master in that science as the author of *Bri-*

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\* See Crit. Rev. July, 1773.

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tish Zoology. The work which he now presents to the public, we are informed, was originally intended for private amusement, and as an index, for the more ready turning to any particular animal in M. De Buffon's voluminous History of Quadrupeds: but as it swelled to a size beyond the author's first expectation, he was induced to communicate it to the world.

Though Mr. Pennant has erected his system chiefly on the basis of that of M. De Buffon, he is far from restricting his researches to the information delivered by that ingenious and agreeable author. For, by his own observations, as well as by those which have been communicated to him by his numerous friends, he has made great additions to the subject. With how much judgment he has arranged the materials of this great work, will appear from his remarks on the systems of preceding naturalists, and the particular method which himself has followed. Of the various systems which have been invented, he thus delivers his sentiments.

‘ The Synopsis of our illustrious countryman, Mr. Ray, has been long out of print; and though, from his enlarged knowledge and great industry one might well suppose his work would for some time discourage all further attempts of the same sort, yet a republication of that Synopsis would not have answered our present design: for, living at a period when the study of natural history was but beginning to dawn in these kingdoms, and when our contracted commerce deprived him of many lights we now enjoy, he was obliged to content himself with giving descriptions of the few animals brought over here, and collecting the rest of his materials from other writers. Yet so correct was his genius, that we view a systematic arrangement arise even from the chaos of Aldrovandus and Gesner. Under his hand the indigested matter of these able and copious writers assumes a new form, and the whole is made clear and perspicuous.

‘ From this period every writer on these subjects proposed his own method as an example; some openly, but others more covertly, aiming at the honour of originality, and attempting to seek for fame in the path chalked out by Mr. Ray; but too often without acknowledging the merit of the guide.

‘ Mr. Klein, in 1751, made his appearance as a systematic writer on quadrupeds, and in his first order follows the general arrangement of Mr. Ray; but the change he has made of separating certain animals, which the last had consolidated, are executed with great judgment. He seems less fortunate in his second order; for, by a servile regard to a method taken from the number of toes, he has jumbled together most opposite animals; the camel and the sloth, the mole and the bat, the glutton and apes; happy only in throwing back the walrus, the seal, and the manati,

manati, to the extremity of his system: I suppose, as animals nearly bordering on another class.

M. Brisson, in 1756, favoured the world with another system, arranging his animals by the number or defect of their teeth; beginning with those that were toothless, such as the ant-eater, and ending with those that had the greatest number, such as the opossum. By this method, laudable as it is in many respects, it must happen unavoidably that some quadrupeds, very distant from each other in their manners, are too closely connected in his system; a defect which, however common, should be carefully avoided by every naturalist.

In point of time, Linnæus ought to have the precedence; for he published his first system in 1735. This was followed by several others, varying constantly in the arrangement of the animal kingdom, even to the last edition of 1766. It is, therefore, difficult to defend, and still more ungrateful to drop any reflections on a naturalist, to whom we are so greatly indebted. The variations in his different systems may have arisen from the new and continual discoveries that are made in the animal kingdom; from his sincere intention of giving his systems additional improvements; and perhaps from a failing, (unknown indeed to many of his accusers) a diffidence in the abilities he had exerted in his prior performances. But it must be allowed, that the naturalist ran too great a hazard in imitating his present guise; for in another year he might put on a new form, and have left the complying philosopher amazed at the metamorphosis.

But this is not my only reason for rejecting the system of this otherwise able naturalist; there are faults in his arrangement of mammalia, that oblige me to separate myself, in this one instance, from his crowd of votaries; but that my secession may not appear the effect of whim or envy, it is to be hoped that the following objections will have their weight.

I reject his first division, which he calls primates, or chiefs of the creation; because my vanity will not suffer me to rank mankind with apes, monkeys, maucaucos, and bats, the companions Linnæus has allotted us even in his last system.

The second order of bruta I avoid for much the same reason: the most intelligent of quadrupeds, the half reasoning elephant, is made to associate with the most discordant and stupid of the creation, with sloths, ant-eaters, and armadillos, or with manaties and walruses, inhabitants of another element.

The third order of ferae is not more admissible in all its articles; for it will be impossible to allow the mole, the shrew, and the harmless hedge-hog, to be the companions of lions, wolves, and bears: we may err in our arrangement,

“Sed non ut placidis coeant immitia, non ut  
Serpentes avibus gementur, tigribus agni.”

In his arrangement of his fourth and fifth orders we quite agree, except in the single article noctilio, a species of bat, which



happening to have only two cutting teeth in each jaw, is separated from its companions, and placed with squirrels, and others of that class.

‘The sixth order is made up of animals of the hooped tribe; but of genera so different in their nature, that notwithstanding we admit them into the same division, we place them at such distances from each other, with so many intervening links and softening gradations, as will, it may be hoped, lessen the shock of seeing the horse and the hippopotame in the same piece. To avoid this as much as possible, we have flung the last into the back ground, where it will appear more tolerable to the critic, than if they were left in a manner conjoined.

‘The last order is that of whales: which, it must be confessed, have, in many respects, the structure of land animals; but their want of hair and feet, their fish-like form, and their constant residence in the water, are arguments for separating them from this class, and forming them into another, independent of the rest.

‘But while I thus freely offer my objections against embracing this system of quadrupeds, let me not be supposed insensible of the other merits of this great and extraordinary person: his arrangement of fish, of insects, and of shells, are original and excellent; he hath, in all his classes, given philosophy a new language; hath invented apt names, and taught the world a brevity, yet a fulness of description, unknown to past ages: he hath with great industry brought numbers of synonyms of every animal into one point of view; and hath given a concise account of the uses and manners of each, as far as his observation extended, or the information of a numerous train of travelling disciples could contribute: his country may triumph in producing so vast a genius, whose spirit invigorates science in all that chilly region, and diffuses it from thence to climates more favourable, which gratefully acknowledge the advantage of its influences.’

It may next be proper to lay before our readers the plan which Mr. Pennant has followed in the distribution of quadrupeds.

‘I copy, says he, Mr. Ray, in his greater divisions of animals into hooped, and digitated; but, after the manner of Mr. Klein, form separate genera of the rhinoceros, hippopotame, tapiir, and musk. The camel being a ruminating animal, wanting the upper fore-teeth, and having the rudiments of hoofs, is placed in the first order, after the musk, a hornless cloven-hooped quadruped.

‘The apes are continued in the same rank Mr. Ray has placed them, and are followed by the maucaucos.

‘The carnivorous animals deviate but little from his system, and are arranged according to that of Linnaeus, after omitting the seal, mole, shrew, and hedge-hog.

‘The herbivorous or frugivorous quadrupeds keep here the same

same station that our countryman assigned them; but this class comprehends besides, the shrew, the mole, and the hedge-hog. The mole is an exception to the character of this order, in respect to the number of its cutting teeth; but its way of life, and its food, place it here more naturally than with the feræ, as Linnaeus has done. These exceptions are to be met with even in the method of that able naturalist; nor can it be otherwise in all human systems; we are so ignorant of many of the links of the chains of beings, that to expect perfection in the arrangement of them, would be the most weak presumption. We ought, therefore, to drop all thoughts of forming a system of quadrupeds from the character of a single part: but if we take combined character, of parts, manners, and food, we bid much fairer for producing an intelligible system, which ought to be the sum of our aim.

‘The fourth section of digitated quadrupeds, consists of those which are absolutely destitute of cutting teeth, such as the sloth and armadillo.

‘The fifth section is formed of those which are destitute of teeth of every kind, such as the manis and ant-eater.

‘The third and fourth orders, or divisions, are the pinnated and the winged quadrupeds; the first takes in the walrus and the seals, and (in conformity to preceding writers) the manati. But those that compose this order are very imperfect: their limbs serve rather the use of fins than legs; and their element being for the greatest part the water, they seem as the links between the quadrupeds and the cetaceous animals.

‘The bats again are winged quadrupeds, and form the next gradation from this to the class of birds; and these two orders are the only additions I can boast of adding in this work.’

In this history, Mr. Pennant gives the various synonyms of each animal, with a concise and accurate description, and as full an account as could be collected, of their place, manners, and uses.

As a specimen of the work, we shall present our readers with a few detached passages. The following is our author’s account of the Corsican species of sheep.

‘The height of the male, to the top of the shoulders was two feet and a half: irides a light yellowish hazel: horns, ten inches and a half long, five and a half round at the base, twelve inches distant between tip and tip: sinus lacrymalis very long. Ears short and pointed; brown and hoary without, white within. Head short and brown; lower part of the cheeks black; sides of the neck tawny: lower part covered with pendant hairs six inches long, and black. Body and shoulders covered with brown hairs, tipped with tawny: on the middle of the sides a white mark pointing from the back to the belly. Belly, rump, and legs white; the last have a dusky line on their insides. Tail short:



Short: scrotum (as common to all) pendulous, like that of a ram.

The remains of Martino, a male animal of this kind, imported from Corsica by the illustrious defender of the liberties of his country, general Paoli, is now preserved in the Leverian Museum. It was of the age of four years at the time of its decease. Its horns are twenty-two inches long; the space between tip and tip near eleven; the girth near the base the same. This poor animal had the ill fortune to fall, in our land of freedom, into heavy slavery, and hard usage, in the latter part of his life, which stunted its growth, and prevented the luxuriance of its horns; which ought, at its age, to have had the volutes of a large-horned ram, to have been fifteen inches round at the base, and to have resembled those of the painting by Oudry.

The colours of this specimen differed a little from the others. On the front of the neck is a large spot of white. The shoulders were covered with black hairs; bright and glossy in a state of vigour. On each side of the back, near the loins, is a large bed of white. The eyes, when in health, large, bright, and expressive.

The male, in its native country, is called *mufro*, the female *mufra*. They inhabit the highest part of the Corsican Alps, unless forced down by the snows into rather lower regions. They are so wild, and so fearful of mankind, that the old ones are never taken alive; but are shot by the chasseurs, who lie in wait for them.

The females bring forth in the beginning of May, and the young are often caught after the dam is shot. They instantly grow tame, familiar, and attach themselves to their master. They will copulate with the sheep: there is now an instance in England of a breed between the ram of this species, and a common ewe. They are likewise very fond of the company of goats.

In a wild state, they feed on the most acrid plants: and when tame will eat tobacco, and drink wine.

Their flesh is savory, but always lean. The horns are used for powder-flasks, slung in a belt, by the Corsican peasants; and some are large enough to hold four or five pounds, of twelve ounces each.

The Sardinians make use of the skins dressed, and wear them under their skirts, under the notion of preserving them against bad air. They also wear a surtout without sleeves, made of the same materials, which falls below the knees, and wraps close about their bodies. The skin is very thick, and might have been proof against arrows, when those missile weapons were in use. At present these surtouts are worn to defend them against briars and thorns, in passing through thickets. In all probability they are the very same kind of garment as the *mastruca sardorum*, which the commentators on Cicero suppose to have been

made of the skins of the musk; and the *Mastrucati Latrunculi* the people who wore them. This is in a manner confirmed, as they are still in use with the *latre* or banditti of the island; who find the benefit of them in their impetuous sallies out of the brakes of the country, on the objects of their rapine.

The race is at present extinct in Spain; but is still found in Sardinia and Corfica: whether it exists still in Macedonia, we are ignorant. It is found in these days in great abundance, but confined to the north-east of Asia, beyond the lake Baikal, between the Onon and Argun, and on the east of the Lena, to the height of lat. 60; and from the Lena to Kamschatka; and perhaps the Kurili islands. It abounds on the desert mountains of Mongolia, Songaria, and Tartary. It inhabits the mountains of Persia, and the north of Indostan. The breed once extended further west, even to the Irtis; but as population increased, they have retired to their present haunts, shunning those of mankind.

It is probable that these animals are also found in California. The Jesuits who visited that country in 1697, say that they found a species of sheep as big as a calf of a year or two old, with a head like that of a stag, and enormous horns like those of a ram; and with a tail and hair shorter than that of a stag. This is very likely, as the migration from Kamtschatka to America is far from being difficult.

They were once inhabitants of the British isles. Boethius mentions a species of sheep in St. Kilda, larger than the biggest he-goat, with tails hanging to the ground, and horns longer, and as thick as those of an ox. This account, like the rest of his history, is a mixture of truth and fable. I should have been silent on this head, had I not better authority; for I find the figure of this animal on a Roman sculpture, taken out of Antoninus's wall near Glasgow. It accompanies a recumbent female figure, with a rota or wheel, expressive of a via or way, cut possibly into Caledonia; where these animals might, in that early age, have been found. Whether they were the objects of worship, as among the ancient Tartars, I will not pretend to say: for among the graves of those distant Asiatics, brazen images, and stone figures of their argali, or wild sheep, are frequently found.

Their present habitations, in Siberia, are the summits of the highest mountains, exposed to the sun, and free from woods. They go in small flocks; copulate in autumn, and bring forth, in the middle of March, one, and sometimes two young. At that season the females separate from the males, and educate their lambs; which when first dropped are covered with a soft grey curling fleece, which changes into hair late in the summer. At two months age the horns appear, are broad, and like the face of an ax. In the old rams they grow of a vast size. They are sometimes found of the length of two Russian yards, measured along the spires; weigh fifteen pounds apiece; and are so capacious as to give shelter to the little foxes, who find them accidentally fallen in the wilderness.

The



The subsequent quotation is selected from the account of the antelope, for the sake of the reference which it contains.

'A. with upright horns, twisted spirally, surrounded almost to the top with prominent rings; about sixteen inches long, twelve inches distance between point and point: in size, rather less than the fallow deer or buck: orbits white: white spot on each side of the forehead: colour, brown mixed with red, and dusky: the belly and inside of the thighs white: tail short, black above, white beneath. The females want horns.

'Inhabits Barbary. The form of these horns, when on the scull, is not unlike that of the ancient lyre, to which Pliny compares those of his strepsiceros. The brachia, or sides of that instrument, were frequently made of the horns of animals, as appears from ancient gems. Monfaucon has engraven several.

'To convey the idea of this structure, I caused the figure of one to be engraved, taken from the fifth volume of the Philosophical Transactions abridged, tab. xiv. p. 474. I prefer this to many other figures, as the shell of a tortoise forms the base; which gave rise to the beautiful comment on this passage, in Horace, by Doctor Molyneux.

"O Testudinis auree

Dulcem que strepitum, Pieri temporas!

O mutis quoque piseibus

Donatura cygni, si libeat, sonum."

'The art of giving to dumb fishes the voice of a swan, was thought a strange idea, till that gentleman pointed out that a tortoise made part of the lyre: which animal was by the ancients ranked in the class of fish: and even gave the name of *χελύς* to that species of musical instrument. Horace again invokes his lyre by an address to the tortoise: which flings light on a seven-stringed one preserved in the supplement to Monfaucon.

"Tuque testudo resonare septem

Callida nervis,

Nec loquax olim neque grata."

Mr. Pennant thus describes the Scythian antelope, which is one of the most remarkable species.

'A. with horns distant at the base, and with three curvatures: the last pointing inward. Stand a little reclining: the greatest part annulated: ends smooth. Colour a pale yellow. Are semipellucid: length about eleven inches.

'Head rather large. Nose in the live animal much arched and thick: very cartilaginous: divided lengthways by a small furrow: end as if truncated.

Ears small: irides of a yellowish brown. Neck slender: prominent about the throat. Knees guarded by tufts of hair.

The hair, during summer, is very short: grey mixed with yellow: below the knees darker. Space about the cheeks whitish: forehead

432 forehead and crown hoary, and covered with longer hairs. Under side of the neck and body white.

Winter coat long, rough, and hoary. Tail four inches long: naked below; above clothed with upright hairs, ending with a tuft.

Size of a fallow deer. Females destitute of horns.

These animals inhabit all the deserts from the Danube and Dnieper to the river Irish, but not beyond. Nor are they ever seen to the north of 54 or 55 degrees of latitude. They are found therefore in Poland, Moldavia, about mount Caucasus, and the Caspian sea, and Siberia, in the dreary open deserts, where salt-springs abound, feeding on the salt, the acid and aromatic plants of those countries, and grow in the summer-time very fat: but their flesh acquires a taste disagreeable to many people, and is scarcely eatable, until it is suffered to grow cold after dressing.

The females go with young the whole winter; and bring forth in the northern deserts in May. They have but one at a time; which is singular, as the numbers of these animals are prodigious. The young are covered with a soft fleece, like new-dropt lambs, curled and waved.

They are regularly migratory. In the rutting-season, late in autumn, they collect in flocks of thousands, and retire into the southern deserts. In the spring they divide into little flocks, and return northward at the same time as the wandering Tartars change their quarters.

They very seldom feed alone; the males feeding promiscuously with the females and their young. They rarely lie down all at the same time: but by a providential instinct some are always keeping watch: and when they are tired, they seemingly give notice to such which have taken their rest, who arise instantly, and as it were relieve the centinels of the preceding hours. They thus often preserve themselves from the attack of wolves, and from the surprize of the huntsmen.

They are excessively swift, and will outrun the swiftest horse or greyhound: yet partly through fear, for they are the most timid of animals, and partly by the shortness of their breath, they are very soon taken. If they are but bit by a dog, they instantly fall down, nor will they even offer to rise. In running they seem to incline on one side, and their course is so rapid that their feet seem scarcely to touch the ground.

They are during summer almost purblind; which is another cause of their destruction. This is caused by the heat of the sun, and the splendor of the yellow deserts they are so conversant in.

In a wild state they seem to have no voice. When brought up tame, the young emit a short sort of bleating, like sheep.

The males are most libidinous animals: the Tartars, who have sufficient time to observe them, report that they will copulate



pulate twenty times together; and that this turn arises from their feeding on a certain herb, which has most invigorating powers.

When taken young, they may easily be made tame: but if caught when at full age, are so wild and so obstinate as to refuse all food. When they die, their noses are quite flaccid.

They are hunted for the sake of their flesh, horns, and skins, which are excellent for gloves, belts, &c. The huntsmen always approach them against the wind, lest they should smell their enemy: they also avoid putting on red or white cloaths, or any colours which might attract their notice. They are either shot, or taken by dogs; or by the black eagle, which is trained to this species of falconry.

No animals are so subject to vary in their horns; but the colour and clearness will always point out the animal to which they belong.

This probably was the animal called by Strabo *κολάε*, found among the Scythæ and Sarmatæ, and an object of chase with the ancient inhabitants. He says it was of a size between a stag and a ram, and of a white colour, and very swift. He adds, that it drew up so much water into its head, through its nostrils, as would serve it for several days in the arid deserts: a fable naturally formed, in days of ignorance, from the inflated appearance of its nose.

We shall next present our readers with the account of the elk, or moose-deer.

A male of this species, and the horns of others, having been brought over of late years, prove this, on comparison with the horns of the European elk, to be the same animal. But the account that Josselyn gives of the size of the American moose has all the appearance of being greatly exaggerated; asserting, that some are found twelve feet or thirty-three hands high. But Charlevoix, Dierville, and Lescarbot, with greater appearance of probability, make it the size of a horse, or an Auvergne mule, which is a very large species; and the informations also that I have received from eye-witnesses, make its height from fifteen to seventeen hands. The writers who speak of the European kind, confine its bulk to that of a horse. Those who speak of the gigantic moose, say, their horns are six feet high; Josselyn makes the extent from tip to tip to be two fathom; and La Hontan, from hearsay, pretends that they weigh from 300 to 400 lb. notwithstanding he says, that the animal which is to carry them is no larger than a horse. Thus these writers vary from each other, and often are not consistent with themselves. It seems then that Josselyn has been too credulous, and taken his evidence from huntsmen or Indians, who were fond of the marvellous; for it does not appear that he had seen it. The only thing certain is, that the elk is common to both continents; and that the American, having larger forests to range in,

and more luxuriant food, grows to a larger size than the European.

In America they are found, though rarely, in the back parts of New England; in the peninsula of Nova Scotia, and in Canada; and in the country round the great lakes, almost as low south as the Ohio. In Europe they inhabit Lapland, Norway, Sweden, and Russia; in Asia, the N. E. parts of Tartary and Siberia, but in each of these continents inhabit only parts, where cold reigns with the utmost rigour during part of the year.

They live amidst the forests, for the conveniency of browsing the boughs of trees; by reason of the great length of their legs, and the shortness of their neck, which prevent them from grazing with any sort of ease, they often feed on water-plants, which they can readily get at by wading; and M. Sarrazin says, they are so fond of the *anagris foetida*, or stinking bean-trefoil, as to dig for it with their feet, when covered with snow.

They have a singular gait; their pace is a high shambling trot, but they go with vast swiftness; in old times these animals were made use of in Sweden to draw sledges; but as they were frequently necessary to the escape of murderers and other criminals, the use was prohibited under great penalties. In passing through thick woods, they carry their heads horizontally, to prevent their horns being entangled in the branches. In their common walk, they raise their fore-feet very high; that which I saw stepped over a rail near a yard high with great ease.

They are very inoffensive animals, except when wounded, or in the rutting-season, when they become very furious, and at that time swim from isle to isle, in pursuit of the females. They strike with both horns and hoofs. Are hunted in Canada during winter, when they sink so deep in the snow as to become an easy prey: when first unharboured, squat with their hind parts, make water, and then go off in a most rapid trot: during their former attitude, the hunter usually directs his shot.

The flesh is much commended for being light and nourishing, but the nose is reckoned the greatest delicacy in all Canada: the tongues are excellent, and are frequently brought here from Russia: the skin makes excellent buff leather: Linnaeus says, it will turn a musket-ball: the hair which is on the neck, withers, and hams, of the full-grown elk, is of great length, and very elastic; is used to make mattresses. The hoofs were supposed to have great virtues in curing epilepsies. It was pretended, that the elk, being subject to that disease, cured itself by scratching its ear with its hoof.

The elk was known to the Romans by the name of *alce* and *machlis*: they believed that it had no joints in its legs; and, from the great size of the upper lip, imagined it could not graze without going backward.

Before I quit this subject, it will be proper to take some notice of the enormous horns that are so often found fossil in Ireland, and



and which have always been attributed to the moose deer: I mean the moose deer of Josselyn; for no other animal could possibly be supposed to carry so gigantic a head. These horns differ very much from those of the European or American elk; the beam, or part between the base and the palm, is vastly longer: each is furnished with a large and palmated brow antler, and the snags on the upper palms are longer. The measurements of a pair of these horns are as follow: from the insertion to the tips, five feet five inches; the brow antlers eleven inches; the broadest part of the palm, eighteen; distance between tip and tip, seven feet nine: but these are small in comparison of others that have been found in the same kingdom. Mr. Wright, in his *Lou-thiana*, tab. xxii. book III. gives the figure of one that was eight feet long, and fourteen between point and point. These horns are frequent in our Museums, and at gentlemen's houses in Ireland: but the zoologist is still at a loss for the recent animal. I was once informed by a gentleman long resident in Hudson's Bay, that the Indians speak of a beast of the moose kind (which they call waskeffer) but far superior in size to the common one, which they say is found 7 or 800 miles S. W. of York Fort. If such an animal existed, with horns of the dimensions just mentioned, and of proportionable dimensions in other parts, there was a chance of seeing Josselyn's account verified: for if our largest elks of seventeen hands high carry horns of scarcely three feet in length, we may very well allow the animal to be thirty-three hands high which is to support horns of 3 or 400 lb. weight. But from later enquiries, I find that the waskeffer of the Indians is no other than the animal we have been describing.

From Mr. Pennant's accurate and extensive knowledge of natural history, and from the information which he has received, not only from preceding writers on that subject, but from printed voyages of the best authorities, and from living voyagers; foreign and English; not to mention the British Museum, or that of Sir Ashton Lever, so highly applauded by this ingenious naturalist; from all those considerations, the present work may be justly considered as the completest system of the history of quadrupeds, hitherto published: and to render it the more useful, as well as pleasing, it is enriched with a great number of beautiful engravings.

*Uncertainty of the present Population of this Kingdom; deduced from a candid Review of the Accounts lately given of it by Dr. Price, on the one Hand, Mr. Eden, Mr. Wales, and Mr. Howlett, on the other. 8vo. 6d. Richardson and Urquhart.*

THE author of this pamphlet founds his opinion upon a review of the accounts lately given by Dr. Price, on one hand; and by Mr. Eden, Mr. Wales, and Mr. Howlett, on

the other, respecting the population of this country. According to Dr. Price's estimate, the inhabitants of England and Wales must be short of five millions; but the other writers on this subject make the number much more considerable. Mr. Howlett, in particular, supposes it to amount to between eight and nine millions. The author of the present pamphlet expresses a strong suspicion of the accuracy of many of the articles in Mr. Howlett's tables of total and returned houses. That this apprehension is well-grounded, the very proportion, between the houses said to be returned, and the total number, renders it, he thinks, extremely probable. For this proportion is not greatly different from that between the number of houses charged at the tax-office, and the whole number returned there; the former being to the latter considerably less than as three to four.

Now, admitting, says he, that some of the articles in Mr. Howlett's tables are correct, authentic, and rightly stated, as they probably are; the proportion, with respect to the remainder, would, I fancy, be nearly the same as that now mentioned.

This striking analogy, however, is not my only ground of suspicion. I have discovered, with regard to one place, that the fact is really as I have hinted. The number of houses said to be returned in the parish alluded to is 96, the total 198. A correspondent, on whose veracity I can safely depend, assures me, that these 198 are all in the parish duplicate, and that the 96 are those which are charged or assessed. As Mr. Howlett has suffered, either his precipitation or his inattention to mislead him in one instance, and as strong marks of suspicion accompany many of his other articles, he will, I presume, readily excuse me, if I either do not admit his very sanguine and flattering conclusions, without great caution and considerable deductions; or if I deny that he has, in particular, here evinced, that our present numbers are between eight and nine millions, or that their increase has been more than one-third since the Revolution.

The following remarks on the register-evidence, which was adduced by Mr. Howlett, are worthy of attention.

With respect to the proofs of either absolute or relative population derived from parish registers, which are generally deemed so decisive and satisfactory, they appear to me, of all others, the most precarious and uncertain. The degrees of mortality prevalent at different æras, the number of dissentients or separatists from the state religion, the correctness and fidelity with which the registers themselves are kept; must all be well ascertained before their information can be at all de-

pendent



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 depended upon. The varying ratio of mortality alone may sometimes render all comparison useless for the purpose in question. When the pestilence raged quite over Europe, and, in the course of a year or two, swept almost half its inhabitants into the grave, had the annual average amount of births and deaths for ten or fifteen years been taken, and a judgment thence formed of its actual population, we must have concluded it to have been vastly greater than it was fifty years before or after; whereas it is indubitably certain that it was on the contrary, prodigiously less. Should we examine the parochial records of mortality in our own country for ten years, in that part of the last century, in which near fifty-thousand persons died of the plague in our metropolis alone, and the same dreadful distemper sent death into every quarter of the nation, we should be led to imagine that our inhabitants were more numerous than before or since; as not only the burials were vastly augmented, but, for obvious reasons, the baptisms likewise. But allowing the ratio of mortality at the two periods between which we want to draw a parallel to remain nearly the same, yet a further difficulty still arises from the different number of separatists from the established worship, who are seldom entered in the parochial registers. Carry this research into France. You will, perhaps, find the Protestants not a third part so many as they were at the Revolution; and I am strongly inclined to believe, that that increased population the French writers, with such colour and plausibility, so much boast of, is a mere deception, owing very much, if not entirely, to this circumstance alone. Bring the enquiry back into England; the Papists are incomparably fewer at present than a hundred years ago; and as to the Dissenters, their diminution is so great and striking, that it is even among themselves a common topic of complaint and lamentation; and with regard to the careless inaccuracy with which the registers were formerly kept, every one that consults them will be immediately convinced.

One of the arguments advanced by Mr. Howlett, in favour of the rapid progress of population in the northern counties, was the vast number of chapels of ease, which have been erected within these thirty years. But this author affirms, on what he considers as the most authentic intelligence, that, in consequence of this multiplication of chapels, it is no uncommon thing for baptisms (and sometimes perhaps burials) to be entered twice; first in the chapel-register, and afterwards, for greater security, in that of the mother church. Hence the astonishing excess of the baptisms over the burials in some parishes, frequently even to more than double.

The author concludes, as follows, by mentioning the collateral testimony, conjunctly with which, he is ready to admit the evidence of parochial registers;

That I may not be thought too sceptical, or disposed to indulge an absurd degree of incredulity, I shall be perfectly satisfied with the register-evidence, even though the several qualifications necessary to render it a complete ground to estimate our relative numbers, should not be fully attainable, provided it nearly corresponds with the deficiency of the surveyors' returns of houses, and with the proportion of men allotted to the triennial service of the national militia. This deficiency and this proportion will indeed be extremely different, not only in different counties, but even in different parts and divisions of the same county. The average, however, arising from the aggregate of correct and well-authenticated information from two or three principal towns, and thirty or forty villages and country-parishes in every province throughout the nation, and taken perfectly at a venture, will ascertain these points with all desirable precision. If the computations fairly formed from these two data mutually agree with each other, and with the register testimony of advanced population, we may be as fully convinced of our increased numbers, and may be nearly as sure of what is their present actual amount, as from the most correct and accurate survey. But if, on the contrary, they all totally differ, and if in particular the deficiency in the surveyors' returns does not exceed fifty, or even a hundred thousand, we must be forced to admit the painful idea of depopulation, and shall have nothing to do but to make the best of it.

If Mr. Wales and Mr. Howlett continue their researches, the remarks thrown out by this writer will be worthy of their notice; and we should be glad to see that those gentlemen have evinced, as nearly as possible, the accuracy of their general computation, upon principles the most fair, unexceptionable, and decisive.

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*The Question considered, Whether Wool should be allowed to be exported, when the Price is low at Home, on paying a Duty to the Public? By Sir John Dalrymple, Bart. 8vo. 6d. Cadell.*

THE question agitated by this judicious writer is a matter of great importance in political economy, and merits the most deliberate investigation. To determine it with the greater certainty, Sir John Dalrymple sets out with stating some general



neral propositions, apparently just, and which may serve as first principles in the prosecution of the enquiry. Those propositions are as follows;

I. That the exportation of raw materials is a gain to a country, in proportion to the quantity of industry employed in producing them, of the shipping employed in exporting them, and of the value got for them in return.

II. That it is more advantageous to a country, to work up its own raw materials into manufactures, to be consumed at home or exported abroad, than to export them to foreign countries for the use of their manufactures; and, consequently, that a wise nation may prohibit the exportation of its raw materials, to the extent of its ability to work them up at home with advantage.

III. But if, from any circumstances, either of war or of peace, a country cannot, at a particular period, find a vent for the manufacture as it used to do, then a continuance of the prohibition to export the raw material seems impolitic; because, if the raw material, which cannot be manufactured at home, be not allowed to be exported abroad, it must be left to perish. But this prohibition will be doubly impolitic, if the material thus left to perish, be of a nature to have cost much money in producing, and be of so great value, that the profit of the farmer, and the rent-roll of the landlord, depend upon it; and, consequently, the revenue of the state, and the industry of the people, both of which are intimately connected with the greater or less quantity of money in the hands of the farmer and landlord.

IV. If any doubt should arise, whether there be such a redundancy in the raw material, as disables the manufacturer to work it up with a good prospect of a market, then the infallible test to find out the truth is, to enquire into the state of the price of the raw material. When there is a redundancy, the price will be low; when there is not, it will be high. Thus the barometer of price will easily and infallibly point out when the raw material should, and when it should not, be allowed to be exported.

V. If a nation should think of submitting to prohibit the exportation of a raw material, lest it should serve the manufactures of another country; that is to say, should inflict a certain evil upon itself, from the hopes of inflicting a very uncertain evil upon its neighbours; it ought to be very sure that these neighbours cannot be supplied with the raw material elsewhere, either within themselves or from others.

VI. If the raw material prohibited to be exported, be in great request with other nations, it will be smuggled abroad,

notwithstanding the prohibition. If the experience of ages has proved that this cannot be prevented, with respect to wool at least, it seems, at the first blush of the proposal, more wise to permit it to be exported, on paying a duty to the state, than to be making daily and vain complaints, that it is exported without paying any. But whether that first impression ought, or ought not to be indulged, will deserve the consideration of every landed and every commercial man in the kingdom, of the meanest beggar, as well as of the king and his parliament.

The intelligent author next proceeds to give his reasons, why parliament should allow wool to be exported from Great Britain, when the price is low, on paying a duty to the public. That our readers may be the better enabled to judge of the subject, we shall lay before them the whole of those considerations.

Reason I. The redundancy of wool is at present so great in Britain, that it is sunk in many places 50 per cent. and in very few places less than 30 per cent. If not allowed to be exported, that superfluity must either perish, or, being pressed into a glutted market, must sink still lower the price even of that portion which can be manufactured.

Reason II. Anciently the English paid their chief attention to the fleece of the sheep, because it was the chief object of price. In ancient records, the value of the whole sheep bears no proportion to his wool. At present, in most countries, people pay attention to the carcase alone, because the fleece is no longer the object of price. But if the value of wool was allowed to be raised, by presenting to it two markets instead of one; that is to say, both the home and foreign, instead of the home alone; the quality of wool, which like other objects of art and of nature is capable of improvement, would be improved. The power of English industry, when not damped by mistaken policies, is beyond that of all nations. The great increase in the length, the weight, and the quality of the fleeces made by the gentlemen of Lincolnshire, even within these thirty years, shews the extent to which the improvement of English wool might be carried. Spanish rams are more easily to be transported from Spain into England, than Spanish horses; and yet these last, though prohibited to be exported, find their way from the one country into the other. At some period, and that not a distant one, the wool of Britain might come to rival the wool of Spain in its quality. It is a mistake to think that all the wool of Spain is fine. We are apt to think so, because all the wool that comes to us from Spain, we see to be fine. But the fact is, that as the king



king of Spain has a duty of near 18d. upon every pound of wool exported, none but the very finest is sent abroad, often not more than a small part of the very finest of the fleece. In many parts of Spain they are as attentive to the breed of their sheep, as they are to the chastity of their wives, or as we are to the breed of our race-horses. They carry their sheep from province to province for proper food and climate, according to the different seasons of the year. The code of laws concerning the flocks and fleeces of Spain makes a folio volume; and there is a great law officer, with a court of justice, to whom the care of seeing the regulations of that code executed, is intrusted. But in the few parts of Spain, where no attention is paid to the breed, and where the sheep are kept upon the same pasture round the peasants' homes all the year, as is done in most parts of Old Castile, the fleeces are as miserable, though in the finest climate of the world, as in the worst hills of Scotland. In ancient times, the wool of England was in as much estimation at European markets as the wool of Spain. But the Spaniards, by allowing their wool to be exported, led their people to improve it; while the English, by prohibiting it to be exported, led their people to neglect it. Remove the artificial obstruction, and nature and industry will bring things to their ancient state again. A tax upon the exportation of English wool will, in one respect, operate exactly in the same manner that a tax upon the exportation of wool from Spain has operated; for, in order to escape the weight of the tax, merchants will export only the finest kinds of wool, and the wool-growers knowing this, will vie with each other who shall produce the finest.

Reason III. The prohibition to export wool defeats its own object. As it confines the wool-grower to one market, it sinks the price; sinking the price, it causes a demand from foreign countries; causing a demand from foreign countries, it tempts the smuggler to export; and, by this circle, it is the real cause of that very thing which it is intended to prevent. But this is not all: the man who smuggles one cargo abroad, will smuggle another home; and to decrease his risk, and increase his profit, his new cargo will be of the least bulk, and the highest value he can get; and consequently will, to a degree not very easily estimable, hurt the industry and the revenue of his country. Let it be inquired, from what coasts the greatest quantity of English wool has been run to France, and to what coasts the greatest quantity of French goods have been run to England, and they will be found to be the same. Is a regulation, which under its wings has fostered up a system of smuggling, and strengthened it by the mutual dependance of

of an exporting and an importing trade, of no consideration to a nation, whose old taxes, when defeated, must be supplied by new ones, upon manufacture, trade, money, and land.

Reason IV. Since then it is impossible to prevent the exportation of our wool, the dispute seems to resolve into this question, whether it be best to allow the fair trader to export it, on paying a duty to the public, or to submit to the smuggler exporting it, without paying any? If the exportation be permitted, and the duty consequently levied only when the price is low, the two following consequences will follow:—1st, When there is a redundancy of wool, more than is manufactured at home, it will be exported, to the profit of the landholder; and 2dly, It will produce a large revenue, to the profit of the state.

Reason V. Every argument for encouraging the exportation of corn when price is low, applies equally to the exportation of wool when price is low, with two advantages on the side of the last of these measures. For first, if it be imprudent to supply our enemies with a raw material for their manufacture at an advanced price, it seems more imprudent to supply them with food, the first principle of all manufactures, at a lower price than we eat it ourselves; and secondly, it seems strange that a duty should be refused to be accepted on the exportation of the one, when a bounty is not scrupled to be bestowed on the exportation of the other.

To the reasons above delivered, the judicious baronet afterwards enumerates a variety of possible objections, all of which he endeavours to remove by clear, explicit, and extremely forcible answers. The latter being of considerable length, we shall only specify the objections, which are ranked under five distinct heads. If there be a redundancy of wool, the natural remedy is to turn pasture land into corn land.—A permission to export wool, would raise the price of wool too high; and consequently, would hurt the manufacturing, not serve the landed interest.—A mixture of English wool is absolutely necessary in the fabric of foreign woollens; to supply them with wool, is therefore to promote their manufactures at the expence of our own.—The woollen manufactures of Spain have been kept down, by the latitude given to the exportation of wool.—If a tax be laid on the exportation of wool, it will either continue to be smuggled, to avoid the tax, or it will not be exported at all.

Sir John Dalrymple, in support of his reasons, and answers to objections, adduces a number of facts, which tend to confirm the opinion he entertains on this subject. From authorities



authorities cited in the pamphlet, he observes, that before the prohibition to export wool took place in England at the Restoration, and in Scotland at the Union, the average price of wool was far higher in both countries than it has been since the prohibition: that the exportation of woollen manufacture from England has not been greater, all circumstances considered, since the prohibition took place than it was before; and in Scotland has been less: that since the prohibition took place, the quantity of wool smuggled abroad has been immense: that in ancient times, the English wool was in as great request abroad as the Spanish: and that, at the close of the last century, it was computed, that one-fifth of the land rents in England was paid by wool.

On a subject which is liable to be viewed in different lights, by the woollen manufacturers and the landed interest, it must give pleasure to all men of public spirit, to behold this important question treated with such perspicuity as it is, by sir John Dalrymple; whose judicious observations will, we hope, conduce to establish a uniformity of sentiment in a matter of great national importance.

*A complete Digest of the Theory, Laws, and Practice of Insurance.*

By John Weskett. Folio, 2l. 5s. in boards. Richardson and Urquhart.

IN a Preliminary Discourse, published a few years since, Mr. Weskett delineated the great disorders which prevail in the affairs of insurance, explained their principal causes, and proposed methods for their better regulation and prevention. The author has now completed his elaborate work, which is conveniently digested in an alphabetical form, under such heads as relate to insurance, in all the variety of circumstances. Mr. Weskett delivers not only the most prudential rules and cautions, but reports of decided cases, with the necessary forms of obligation, in contracting to insure against hazards at sea. The subject being too technical to excite the attention of the greater part of our readers, it may be sufficient to give them, by a specimen, an idea of the manner in which it is treated. For this purpose, we shall select the article *Insurance*, as being of a general nature.

The various matters which relate to insurance, being treated of distinctly under their several respective heads throughout this work, it will suffice to speak here of the subject in general.

The civilians have laboured much in their enquiries upon the nature of the contract of insurance; “whether it be *sponsio*, *contractus qui re constat*, *stipulatio*, *fidejussio*, *litterarum obligatio*, *emptio*—

*emptio-venditio, locatio, societas, mandatum, and whether it be contractus innominatus, vel nominatus?*—But, all this is frivolous and mere subtilty: it is sufficient to know that insurance is a contract by which the insurer promises to the insured, or him who hath interest in the ship, cargo, or thing which is insured (for otherwise it is not an insurance, but a wager) to guarantee or indemnify him from all the losses and damages which shall happen thereto, without fraud or fault of the insured, by unavoidable accidents, or dangers of the sea, during the voyage, or during the time of the risque, according to the tenor of the contract, or policy; in consideration of a sum, called premium, paid by the insured to the insurer.—I offer this definition of insurance, as more adequate and complete than any I have met with; and as comprehending that of Loccenius, Stypmannus, Straccia, Scaccia, Targa, Kuricke, Bornier, and all the esteemed authors who have treated of it.

Grotius calls it "*Contractus, in facto præstandæ indemnitàtis circa casus fortuitos averfio periculi*;" and observes that it was unknown to the ancients: *De jur. bel. & pac. lib. ii. cap. 12, sect. 3.*—Gerard Malynes, in his *Lex Mercatoria*; Molloy, *De jure maritimo*, and several other English authors, seem to favour a contrary opinion, founded on a passage of Suetonius, in *Vita Claudii, cap. 18*, which alludes somewhat to insurance: but the learned civilian and senator Langenbeck, of Hamburgh, in his annotations on insurances, has very judiciously and evidently shewn that the meaning of Suetonius was no more than this; that in time of public danger, whenever any private man's property should be made use of for the service of the commonwealth, the loss and damage of the private person were to be made good by the public: this is founded in justice and equity; and is followed at this time by all governments that are guided by equitable principles: but it cannot be parallel with the insurance here treated of; which is a matter of choice, and for conveniency, between private persons.—Concerning insurance of this nature we meet with nothing older than an ordinance made at Barcelona, mentioned in *Casa Regis's Consolato del Mare*, or a treatise on the sea-laws of Oleron, which, though without date, by some facts it recites, seems to have been made about the year 1435; and, by the preamble to this ordinance, it appears that not many others had preceded it, since it begins with these words; "Whereas in times past but few ordinances of insurance have been made; which defect wanted correction, and amendment, &c." but in 1481, the crown of Arragon being united to the Spanish monarchy by the marriage of Ferdinand, the Catholic, with Isabella, heiress of Castile, the Catalans became subjected to the laws of Spain, and therefore no further notice is to be taken of their particular laws at Barcelona.—The next remarkable ordinance is one made at Florence in 1523, which is still in force at Leghorn: then follows the celebrated one of Philip II. of Spain. 1556.



\* According to Stypmannus, Cleirac's Guidon, and many other authors, the contract of maritime insurance, passed from the Italians amongst the Spaniards; afterwards into Holland; and then became in use amongst all commercial nations.

\* Mons. Savary says, the Jews were the first who introduced the practice of insurance about 1183.—Being driven from France they made use of this way to avoid the risking entirely the loss of their effects; but, the current practice of insurance was first established in England.—Dict. du Citoyen.

\* Whoever was the first contriver of it, it has for many ages been practised in this kingdom; and is supposed to have been introduced here jointly with its twin brother, exchanges, by some Italians from Lombardy, who at the same time came to settle at Antwerp, and among us; and this being prior to the building the Royal-Exchange, they used to meet in the place where Lombard-street now is, at a house they had, called the pawn-house, or Lombard, for transacting business; and as they were then the sole negociators of insurance, the policies made by others in after times had a clause inserted that "they should be of as much force and effect as those heretofore made in Lombard-street."—As insurances in time grew more general in England, the legislature, by stat. 43 Eliz. cap. 12. erected a court called the Court of Policies of Assurance, for deciding all disputes and differences concerning them in a summary way; with an office for making and registering of policies, which was kept on the west side of the Royal-Exchange; but this did not exclude others from making insurances, in whose policies were added, immediately after the above-mentioned clause, the words following "or in the Royal-Exchange or any where else;" and the whole still remain in the policies now in use.

\* This branch of business was originally confined to maritime affairs solely; but by modern laws or customs, insurances are much extended, and may be made as follows, viz.—on divers kinds of merchandises; on ships or part of ships; by the month, or for a time stipulated, or to one single port, or out and home, with liberty to touch at the different places mentioned in the policy, or for a trading voyage; on the freight, or hire of ships; on the money for fitting out of ships: on bottomry, or money borrowed on the keel of a ship, or on the goods to be shipped on board her, called respondentia; on ships and their cargoes jointly;—on the profit expected by the goods; in some places, on interest or no interest, i. e. without further proof of interest than the policy, and on the rise or continuance of the current price of merchandises;—on houses, furniture, warehouses, cellars, and the value of goods laid up therein, against danger from fire (for which purpose there are in London, several societies and offices erected, with a limitation to this branch only) on fisheries, and the bounties to ships employed therein; on the lives of men, and their liberty; on cattle; on lotteries; also on goods sent by land, or by hoys, or lighters, &c. on rivers;—and, in general,

on

on every kind of property or interest, in whatsoever situation, liable to any risque of loss or damage:—the whole according to the circumstances agreed upon and understood by the parties, and under the restrictions of the customs, usages, laws, and ordinances, of the respective countries, in which the contract is made.

Every person may insure, who by the laws of his country has a right to dispose of his property: but in some places where ordinances relating to insurances are in force, many persons are excepted; particularly those concerned either in the management or direction of them: as insurance-brokers, commissioners, and secretaries of any chambers, or tribunals, for judging of differences that may arise in this branch of business; since they ought all to be men strictly impartial: nor in any country, whatsoever, except England, are brokers permitted to insure.

Notwithstanding all ancient, and some modern ordinances relating to insurance, enjoin the insured, in explicit terms, to run part of the risque themselves; nay, in some cases, that are likely to give occasion to fraud, forbid insuring at all; yet such injunctions and prohibitions are commonly evaded, and seldom long complied with: the custom of overlooking or dispensing with the disposition of the law in those respects has crept in every where.

Insurances promote and support trade and navigation, as thereby the risques of diligent, industrious, and inventive persons, are so lessened, that they may engage even in important undertakings: it is easily understood how the public is benefited hereby: and by taking such precautions, as making insurance, a greater share of confidence is acquired amongst individuals:—but, as the best institutions are subject to abuse, certain bounds and regulations are necessary, which, whilst they give such latitude as may promote and encourage trade, ought not to be so extremely wide as that ill consequences may ensue. That this consideration should be attended to in enacting all laws and ordinances relating to insurances, is not to be controverted; nor that it should also be had in view, in the explanation and application of those laws to particular cases.

The learning relating to marine insurances hath of late years been greatly improved by a series of judicial decisions, which have now established the law in such a variety of cases, that (if well and judiciously collected) they would form a very complete title in a code of commercial jurisprudence: but, being founded on equitable principles, which chiefly result from the special circumstances of the case, it is not easy to reduce them to any general heads in mere elementary institutes: thus much may however be said; that, being contracts, the very essence of which consists in observing the purest good faith and integrity, they are vacated by any the least shadow of fraud or undue concealment: and, on the other hand, being much for the benefit and extension of trade, by distributing the loss or gain among a number of adventurers, they are greatly encouraged and protected both by common law and acts of parliament.—2 Black. Comm. 451.

For



For a more comprehensive view of this subject, the nature of divers commercial, maritime, and other matters which have affinity therewith, must also be well understood; and indeed, the sense of the marine law, as well as the established customs and usages of traders, as they concern owners, freighters, masters of ships, mariners, &c.—for there is frequently so necessary a dependency and connection between all these matters, and such an involution of circumstances, that the evidence, in regard to cases of insurance, cannot be come at, nor a right judgment made, without taking many, and sometimes, perhaps, all of these things into due consideration.

It is notorious to all the mercantile world that, as the English insurers pay more readily and generously than any others, most insurances are done in England: we insure at lower rates than other nations, because we have more business of this kind, and the smallness of our profit is compensated by the frequency; the cheapness of insurance, and the eagerness of foreigners to insure here, reciprocally contribute to each other: we are often applied to, because we insure at an easy rate; and we can insure at an easy rate, because we are often applied to.

In Holland, France, Sweden, and most other countries, they may not insure the property of enemies.

The remark with which this quotation concludes, naturally suggests the notice of that important controversy, 'Whether it be right, advantageous, or even legal, to insure an enemy's ships, or merchandises, in time of war or hostilities?' Mr. Weskett presents us with an abstract of all the arguments which have been urged for and against the practice, and also makes several interesting observations on this important subject.

This work has been compiled with great care and industry, by one who is evidently a master of the subject.—It abounds with proofs of extensive reading, as well as of mature reflexion, and judicious remarks; and if the completest system of insurance, that has hitherto been composed, be entitled to praise, the present useful Digest must meet with the approbation of the commercial world.

*Cui Bono? Or, an Inquiry, what Benefits can arise either to the English or the Americans, the French, Spaniards, or Dutch, from the greatest Victories, or Successes, in the present War. Being a Series of Letters addressed to M. Necker, late Controller-general of the Finances in France. By Johan Tuckey, D. D. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.*

SINCE the commencement of the present dispute with America, this ingenious author has often attempted to convince the nation, that the prosecution of the war was repugnant to its interests; and that Britain ought, in good policy,

to permit the independency of her colonies. Having failed in his reiterated applications for this purpose to his own country, he now addresses the French, whom he would also persuade of their political error, in expecting any beneficial consequences from the adversity, or even the total subjection of England. The following extract contains the principal parts of his arguments on this subject.

‘ The former letter being only an introduction, we are now coming to the main subject. Poor England is subdued by the combined forces of France and her allies. Perhaps, indeed, she may not be so absolutely conquered, as to be annexed as a province to the French empire,—nevertheless so totally ruined as to become a bankrupt, and to make a most despicable figure both in the political and commercial world.—Or, if you would chuse an absolute subjection rather than a partial one, the difference between the one condition and the other is not so very material, but that this also may be granted for argument’s sake. England therefore is no longer an independant state, but a province to France, and to be governed by a vice roy of the grand monarch!—can you ask for more?

‘ What then is to be the consequence of this mighty change?—And what effects are to follow, in the course of trade, and in the system of politics, from this grand revolution?—Respecting trade, it is evident to a demonstration, that were a tradesman, or a shopkeeper to be asked, whether it is his interest, that his richest customers and best paymasters should become bankrupts and beggars? he would give you a very short answer. Perhaps likewise he would be tempted to ask in his turn,—“ Do you mean, Sir, to insult my understanding, or to express your own ignorance by asking such a foolish question?” But it seems, public trading nations are to proceed by opposite methods, and by maxims of trade and commerce, quite contrary to those of individuals. Bodies politic are to use every effort in their power to beggar their customers first, and to trade with them afterwards, as the wisest course: so that what would have been the height of folly and absurdity in the one case, not to say, wickedness and immorality,—is to be considered in the other as the depth of prudence, foresight, sagacity, penetration, or what you please.—Here therefore, let us begin our accounts, and open our books debtor and creditor between one commercial nation and another.

‘ The English, when a great and rich people, bought vast quantities of the choicest wines and brandies which France could produce; and they were known to be the best of customers by paying for them in ready money, and even by advancing sums beforehand!—But when these dealers shall be reduced to the lowest ebb of want and indigence,—they will buy more wines and brandies than ever they did, and become better customers than they were before. This is penetration! this is sagacity!

‘ Again, the English, when in great prosperity, and overflowing



flowing with riches, were remarkably vain and ostentatious: and their females in particular (as it was natural for the sex) vied with each other in all the parade of finery. Hence they were induced, and by their wealth they were enabled to buy the richest silks and velvets, and the most elegant gold and silver laces, that could be wrought in France: for nothing was thought to be too costly, provided it came from your country. In short, French fashions were the standards for dress; French cooks taught the laws of eating; and French milliners, tailors, friseurs, and dancing-masters prescribed the rules of good-breeding and politeness. But when those happy, wished for times shall come, when England is to be stripped of all its riches, then these quondam good customers will buy more silks, more brocades, more gold and silver lace, and more every thing than ever they did before,—because they will have nothing to pay: and the whole tribe of cooks, milliners, tailors, friseurs, perfumers, &c. &c. will think themselves superlatively happy in working gratis for beggared English.—This again is another specimen of consummate wisdom, and deep penetration!

In the third letter, the reverend author reverses his former representation, and having endeavoured to prove, that it is the true interest of France to have Great Britain a rich customer, *and not a poor one*, he next proceeds to demonstrate that the prosperity of France is subservient to that of Great Britain. Dr. Tucker labours particularly to expose the unreasonableness of the jealousy of trade between those two nations, and to shew the inefficacy of that passion for obtaining any good end. He observes, that even the pretences for national jealousies between France and England, are much less plausible than those which might have arisen between any two neighbouring countries on the globe.

‘ Thus, for example, the genius of a Frenchman, nationally considered, is quick and lively, rapid and desultory; that of an Englishman penetrating and thoughtful, methodical and correct. In the one fancy is predominant, in the other judgment. The Frenchman’s brilliant fancy leads him to excel in almost all the works of ornament and shew: the Englishman’s solid judgment may be traced in the manufacture of such goods as are fittest for general use and convenience. A Frenchman wishes to strike the eye of the spectator at the first glance; an Englishman strives to call forth his attention to examine the goodness of the work, and the skill and contrivance of the workman. These observations have been often made; indeed they are very obvious. Why then is not the proper inference deduced from them?—An inference of so much consequence to the peace and happiness of mankind? Namely, that such different talents and capacities cannot, properly speaking, be rivals to each other; for they act in different spheres, and tend to different ends and uses. Therefore

there is so much the less colourable pretext for national jealousy between France and England, respecting trade, inasmuch as there can hardly be a national competition between them.

In the fifth letter, the author states the case between England and America, supposing the former to be victorious. Three things, he observes, are the object of the present contest. First, we propose to recover our lost trade with the colonies. Secondly, we hope, that when a reconciliation shall take place, the Americans will be persuaded to bear some share in the general expences of the empire. And thirdly, we conceive, that by their submission we shall recover our national glory. We shall lay before our readers the author's arguments on the first of those heads.

‘And first we propose the recovery of our trade. Trade, Sir, is a very vague term; and may stand for any commercial intercourse between nation and nation, or between man and man, however carried on. But, in the place before us, the term must signify the exportation of British manufactures into America, and the importation of American produce into Britain. This exportation, and this importation, it seems, we have lost: and war and victory are proposed as the properest of all measures for the reparation of our losses. Now it happens very unluckily for the advocates for the present war, that both these propositions are egregiously false;—False, I mean, in the sense by them intended. For we have no otherwise lost our trade with America, than as both the Americans, and ourselves are become much the poorer, and therefore so much the worse customers to each other, by reason of those enormous expences, which the war has occasioned:—At the same time, that the price of the goods and commodities of the respective countries is prodigiously enhanced to the consumers;—enhanced, I say, on account of higher freights, higher insurances, and greater risques;—and above all on account of those vast profits which foreigners with their neutral bottoms gain at present, by being the sole agents, factors, and carriers between the two countries.

‘This being the case, and such the disadvantages on both sides, is it to be wondered at, that the trade between England and America should not be at present in a flourishing condition? How indeed could it have been otherwise in such a state of things?—At the same time, it is proper to ask, will the continuance of the war, and those mutual beggaries and bankruptcies consequent thereupon;—Will these things be a means of reviving our trade, and of making either side the richer, or the better customers?—The man who chuses to maintain such a paradox, is not to be envied on account of his logic. He may say what he pleases.

‘Heretofore it was a kind of unpardonable offence to endeavour to convince the English, that their manufactures had a preference to those of other nations in point of cheapness. For the English



English have a most unaccountable propensity towards the gloomy and the dismal in their prospects concerning trade. And nothing seems to please them better, as the celebrated lord Chesterfield used to say, than gravely to be told, that they are ruined and undone. Therefore his friend lord Bolingbroke grounded all his patriotic dissertations on this very basis;—For which worthy deeds he, and his brother patriots were held in such high esteem by the good people of England during the long, pacific, and wealth-creating reign [if I might use such a term] of Sir R. Walpole, as approached almost to adoration. Indeed, long before them, ruined and undone was the burden of the song. An author of some repute, one Joshua Gee, was so possessed with this desponding notion, that he undertook to demonstrate by figures, and tables of accounts, that the balances of trade were almost every where prodigiously against us: so that, according to this comfortable demonstration, there would not have remained one shilling in Great Britain for these 60 years last past. Yet, Sir, we have spent and lavished away, since that period, chiefly in unnecessary and unprofitable wars, upwards of 150,000,000*l.* sterling:—A sure proof that he was miserably deceived in his calculations; though a most melancholly reflection on our own prudence.

‘ However, that, which reason and argument could not do, respecting trade, experience itself has at last effected. For now the English merchants and manufacturers find and feel, that their goods at an American market (notwithstanding all the present disadvantages they labour under) are allowed to be better, and cheaper, than the like articles of other nations, the Americans themselves being judges. This is a happy omen, which may tend to many good consequences, if properly improved. For from hence it undeniably follows, that the Americans will buy our goods, when it is their interest, and when they are able so to do, notwithstanding the bitterest antipathy they can conceive against us. And I defy any man to prove, that they ever did buy our goods, contrary to their own interests, even during the most flattering periods of their friendship. [One thing however I must confess, that heretofore they frequently bought English merchandise, when they knew they were not able, and never intended to pay for them. And with those very capitals purchased estates, or carried on a trade to the Spanish main. Therefore if this be meant by the complainants, when they lament the loss of the American trade, I hope we shall never recover such a trade for the future: that is, never trust them to the same amount. The bad debts of the Americans to this country, long before the present disturbances, were great beyond imagination;—much greater than the sums owing to England from all the world besides.]

‘ Moreover we now see, and know, that the best produce of America can find its way into England, if we give the best price, notwithstanding these obstacles, which civil wars, and national

animosities, accompanied with every other difficulty and discouragement, can throw in the way. The tobacco of those revolted colonies, Maryland, and Virginia, with the valuable productions of other colonies, are now bought and sold as openly and avowdly, even at public auctions, in all our great sea-ports, as before the war. Therefore after such proofs, what is it, which we can wish for, or desire more? And if this be not sufficient to convince us, that the conquest of America,—supposing it ever so feasible,—can be of no manner of use in a mercantile view,—I should be glad to know, what kind of proof will, or can be thought sufficient? In a word, if daily experience, and matters of fact are not able to bring us to a confession, that our plan is totally wrong, I know not what else to have recourse to, but to declare openly and without reserve, that we are determined to act both against conviction—and against our own interest.’

In the sixth letter, the doctor enquires, what benefits will accrue to America, supposing her to obtain independence in the prosecution of the present war: and on this subject his opinion seems to be perfectly rational.

‘As to the future grandeur of America, says he, and its being a rising empire, under one head, whether republican, or monarchical, it is one of the idlest, and most visionary notions, that ever was conceived, even by writers of romance. For there is nothing in the genius of the people, the situation of their country, or the nature of their different climates, which tends to countenance such a supposition. On the contrary, every prognostic that can be formed from a contemplation of their mutual antipathies, and clashing interests, their difference of governments, habitudes, and manners,—plainly indicates, that the Americans will have no center of union among them, and no common interest to pursue, when the power and government of England are finally removed. Moreover, when the interfections and divisions of their country by great bays of the sea, and by vast rivers, lakes, and ridges of mountains;—and above all, when those immense inland regions, beyond the back settlements, which are still unexplored, are taken into the account, they form the highest probability that the Americans never can be united into one compact empire, under any species of government whatever. Their fate seems to be,—a disunited people, till the end of time. In short, the only probable supposition, that can be formed of them at present is this;—That being so very jealous in their tempers, so suspicious, and distrustful of each other, they will be divided, and subdivided into little commonwealths, or principalities, according to the abovementioned natural divisions, or boundaries of their country; and that all of them in general, will be more intent on prosecuting their own internal disputes and quarrels, than desirous to engage in external wars, and distant conquests. They will have neither leisure, nor inclination, nor abilities for such undertakings.’

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The concluding letter contains a plan for a general pacification; to which indeed the whole of the author's arguments have an obvious tendency.

In those letters, the Dean of Gloucester treats his subject with his usual vivacity, moderation, and acuteness. He certainly may, in a peculiar manner, claim the privilege of being exempted from national or political prejudices; and though he cannot hope to see his arguments prove effectual against the *ratio ultima regum*, he yet may enjoy the satisfaction to reflect, that he has sincerely urged the cause of mutual benevolence, and endeavoured to extinguish every spark of animosity between the contending nations.

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*Bibliotheca Topographica Britannica. No. II. Part II. Containing Reliquiæ Galeanæ, or, Miscellaneous Pieces by the late learned Brothers Roger and Samuel Gale. 4to. 5s. sewed. Nichols.*

THE first number of this publication contains the History and Antiquities of Tunstall in Kent, by the late Mr. Mores. The second, among other articles, comprehends the Memoirs of Thomas, Roger, and Samuel Gale. The third, which is now before us, consists of Letters, written by Roger Gale, Esq. Dr. Stukeley, Maurice Johnson, Esq. Sir John Clerk, E. Cony, Esq. the Rev. Mr. Conyers Place, the Rev. Mr. Ellis, Thomas Robinson, Esq. Mr. N. Salmon, Mr. R. Goodman, Mr. Beaupré Bell, Dr. C. Mortimer, Sam. Gale, Esq. Dr. Ch. Hunter, Mr. V. Snell, Capt. Pownall, Dr. S. Knight, Ch. Gray, Esq. Dr. Th. Blackwell, Dr. Rawlinson, and some other learned antiquaries.

The subjects are Roman roads, camps, stations, coins, ruins, urns, sepulchres, inscriptions, &c.

From these letters we shall give our readers two or three short extracts.

Sir John Clerk's observations on the British language.

I must observe, were it doubtful, that the Saxons were not such strangers in Britain as the generality of our historians believe, since they had made us many visits, and the language of the Britons, according to Cæsar and Tacitus, differed very little from the German, and was originally the same, namely, the Celtic. This language was about 17 or 1800 years ago spoken uniformly by five nations, the Germans, Illyrians, Gauls, Spaniards, and Britons; they had very near the same characters, so that what most of our writers call Saxon characters are truly old British characters, and those which were used in the language spoken from the South parts of Britain to the Murray frith in Scotland; that very language, with

gradual alterations and mixtures, which we speak at this day.

‘ I know that a Welshman will laugh at this doctrine; for the people of Wales commonly believe, that, upon the invasions of the Romans and Saxons, most of the true Britons retired into their country with their language, which continues among them at this time; but this I can demonstrate to be a mistake, for the language spoken in Wales and the Highlands in Scotland came from Ireland, and has no affinity with the old Celtic, of which I could give you hundreds of proofs from the ancient remains of the Celtic: in the mean time, I will not say but that the Irish language may be as old, and possibly older, than the Celtic, but sure I am the latter was quite different from the former.’

What does this writer mean by saying, ‘ the Saxons had made us many visits?’ Every one knows, that they came into Britain in the year 449. But neither the Saxon Chronicle, Bede, nor any other writer, give us the least intimation of any earlier visit.—As there are several notions, which seem to be a little problematical, in this extract, it is to be wished, that the author had entered into the subject, and delivered his sentiments with more precision.

A remarkable circumstance relative to natural history, or the incredible number of hedgehogs in Lincolnshire, in a letter from Mr. M. Johnson, jun. to Dr. Stukeley, Oct. 14, 1719.

‘ Your own parish, Holbeach, affords one remarkable article in the parochial charge, where the last year the churchwardens paid 4l. 6s. for the destruction of urchins or hedgehogs, at but one single penny a-piece; and the present officers have paid above 30l. on the same account already. The vast flocks of cattle in this noble parish, and some coney burroughs, have drawn those creatures from all parts hither, as one would think \*.—

According to this account, the number of these animals, destroyed in two years, must have amounted to 8232! Possibly there might be an overcharge of two or three thousand in the churchwardens rate.

Dr. Stukeley to Mr. R. Gale, on Sir Isaac Newton’s Chronology.

‘ Mr. Conduit has sent me Sir Isaac Newton’s Chronology. I do not admire his contracting the spaces of time; he has pursued that fancy too far. I am satisfied he has made several names of different persons one, who really lived many

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\* See a Vindication of the Hedgehog, Gent. Mag. vol. xlix. P. 395.



ages afunder. He has come pretty near my ground-plot of the Temple of Solomon, but he gives us no uprights. He runs into the common error of making Sefac and Sefostris one person, with Marſham, and many others: the conſequence of which is, that the Ægyptians borrowed architecture from the Jews, when I am ſatisfied all architecture was originally invented by the Ægyptians; and I can deduce all the members and particulars of it from their ſacred delineations, and Vitruvius himſelf was as far to ſeek in the origin of the Corinthian capital, and other matters of that ſort, as a Campbell or Gibbs would be. I judge the late biſhop of Peterborough (Cumberland), in his two poſthumous pieces, has gone further in reſtoring ancient chronology.

‘ Weſt-thorp, where ſir Iſaac Newton was born, is a hamlet of Colſterworth. Sir Iſaac’s anceſtors are buried in Colſterworth church. We have got the fineſt original picture of ſir Iſaac by Kneller, at Mr. Newton Smith’s, his nephew, at Barrowby, a mile from us.’

Extract of a letter from Mr. T. Blackwell, author of *An Enquiry into the Life and Writings of Homer*, to Mr. R. Gale, concerning Dr. Bentley, dated, Grantham, October 2, 1735.

‘ Dr. Mead having been ſo good as to write to his friend Dr. Bentley, that I intended to viſit Cambridge, the old gentleman, who never ſtirs abroad, ſent for us, and did us, I am told, unuſual honours. We ſpent ſome hours with him, had a deal of converſation about himſelf, and ſome about Manilius and Homer. He ſpoke very freely; ſo I found his emendations of the latter ſolely to relate the quantity of the verſe, and ſupplying the lines, where the cæſura cuts off a vowel, which the ancient critics called *Μετράν* or *Λεſαζόν*, as it was in the end or middle of the verſe. This he does by inserting, or, as he ſays, by reſtoring the Æolic Digamma F, which ſerves as a double conſonant, and which he pronounces like our W; thus, *αὐτὰς δὲ ἐλώρια τεύχε κινέσσειν*, he reads, *αὐτὰς δὲ Φελώρια τεύχε κινέσσειν*, and pronounces *autous de Wheloria*, &c. So οἶνϙ, *Φοῖνϙ*, *woinos*, wine, — *ῖς*, *Φῖς*, *wis*, which has likewiſe the ſound of the Latin *vis*; ſo they ſaid, according to him, *Wirgilius*, *Warro*, *Owidius*, *wah*! Yet, if you pleaſe to look into the firſt or ſecond Book of Dionyſius Halicarnæſus’s *Antiquities*, you will find the Digamma explained by a ϕ in Greek, and a V in Latin, and the other Greeks ſaid indifferently *Βίργιλιϙ* and *Οὐίρφιλιϙ*, *Βεργίλιον* and *Οὐαργίλιον*. But the doctor ſays, he, and Ariſtarchus, and Demetrius were all dunces, who knew nothing of the Di-

gamma, which he himself restored the use of, after it had been lost 2000 years.

Though there are some remarks, in these Letters, which have been thrown out in haste, and in the latitude of conjecture, yet there is also a variety of hints, anecdotes, and observations, which are certainly just, and cannot fail of being acceptable to the curious reader, but more especially to the antiquary.

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*The Count of Narbonne, a Tragedy. As it is acted at the Theatre Royal in Covent Garden. By Robert Jephson, Esq.*  
8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

**T**HIS Tragedy, undoubtedly one of the best that has appeared for some years, is founded on Mr. Horace Walpole's celebrated novel, or romance, called the Castle of Otranto, from whence the ingenious Mr. Jephson has drawn almost all the interesting circumstances and events that compose his drama, very judiciously omitting the marvellous part of it, as well knowing that *nodding helmets, waving plumes, and walking pictures*, would have made but a ridiculous figure on an English stage. The Fable is artfully conducted throughout; the characters well sustained, and discriminated; the sentiments, for the most part, natural, unaffected, and suitable to the persons by whom they are delivered; the style and diction remarkably correct, elegant, and harmonious; sufficiently raised above vulgar language to become the dignity of the tragic muse, and at the same time without affectation, bombast, or puerility. The first, third, and fifth acts have some scenes that are masterly and pathetic, in which good actors may always appear to great advantage; the second and fourth are rather heavy and uninteresting: every picture however must have light and shade, and we do not recollect any modern tragedy which has fewer faults and imperfections than the Count of Narbonne.

The following extracts may serve to convince our readers that what we have said, with regard to Mr. Jephson's style and manner, in this applauded performance, is not more than he deserves; and will, we doubt not, invite them to a perusal of the whole drama.

· ACT I. SCENE VI.

*Count.]* Where's my child,  
My all of comfort now, my Adelaide?

*Countess.]* Dear as she is, I would not have her all;  
For I should then be nothing. Time has been,

When,



When, after three long days of absence from you,  
 You would have question'd me a thousand times,  
 And bid me tell each trifle of myself;  
 Then, satisfied at last that all were well,  
 At last, unwilling, turn to meaner cares.

*Count.*] This is the nature still of womankind;  
 If fondness be their mood, we must cast off  
 All grave-complexion'd thought, and turn our souls  
 Quite from their tenour to wild levity:

Vary with all their humours, take their hues,  
 As unsubstantial Iris from the sun:  
 Our bosoms are their passive instruments;  
 Vibrate their strain, or all our notes are discord.

*Countess.*] O why this new unkindness? From thy lips  
 Never till now fell such ungentle words;  
 Nor ever less was I prepar'd to meet them.

*Count.*] Never till now was I so urg'd, beset,  
 Hemm'd round with perils.

*Countess.*] Ay, but not by me.

*Count.*] By thee, and all the world. But yesterday,  
 With uncontrollable and absolute sway  
 I rul'd this province, was the unquestion'd lord  
 Of this strong castle, and its wide domains,  
 Stretch'd beyond sight around me; and but now,  
 The axe, perhaps, is sharp'ning, may hew down  
 My perish'd trunk, and give the soil I sprung from,  
 To cherish my proud kinsman Godfrey's roots.

*Countess.*] Heaven guard thy life! His dreadful summons  
 reach'd me,

This urg'd me hither. On my knees I beg,  
 (And I have mighty reasons for my prayer,)

O do not meet him on this argument:

By gentler means strive to divert his claim;

Fly this detested place, this house of horror,

And leave its gloomy grandeur to your kinsman.

*Count.*] Rise, fearful woman. What! renounce my birth-right?

Go forth, like a poor friendless banish'd man,

To gnaw my heart in cold obscurity!

Thou weak adviser! Should I take thy counsel,

Thy tongue would first upbraid, thy spirit scorn me.

*Countess.*] No, on my soul!—Is Narbonne all the world?

My country is where thou art; place is little:

The sun will shine, the earth produce its fruits,

Chearful, and plenteously, where'er we wander.

In humbler walks, bless'd with my child and thee,

I'd think it Eden in some lonely vale,

Nor heave one sigh for these proud battlements.

*Count.*] Such flowery softness suits not matron lips.

But thou hast mighty reasons for thy prayer:

They should be mighty reasons, to persuade

Their

Their rightful lord to leave his large possessions,  
A soldier challeng'd, to decline the combat.

*Countess.*] And are not prodigies then mighty reasons?

The owl mistakes his season, in broad day  
Screaming his hideous omens; spectres glide,  
Gibbering and pointing as we pass along;  
While the deep earth's unorganized caves  
Send forth wild sounds and clamours terrible;

These towers shake round us, though the untroubled air  
Stagnates to lethargy:—our children perish,  
And new disasters blacken every hour.

Blood shed unrighteously, blood unappeas'd,  
Though we are guiltless, cries, I fear, for vengeance.

*Count.*] Blood shed unrighteously! have I shed blood?

No; nature's common frailties set aside,  
I'll meet my audit boldly.

*Countess.*] Mighty Lord!

O! not on us, with justice too severe,  
Visit the sin, not ours!

*Count.*] What can this mean?

Something thou would'st reveal that's terrible.

*Countess.*] Too long, alas 't has weigh'd upon my heart;

A thousand times I have thought to tell thee all;

But my tongue falter'd, and refus'd to wound thee.

*Count.*] Distract me not, but speak.

*Countess.*] I must. Your father

Was wise, brave, politick; but mad ambition,  
(Heaven pardon him!) it prompts to desperate deeds.

*Count.*] I scarce can breathe. Pr'ythee be quick, and ease me.

*Countess.*] Your absence on the Italian embassy

Left him, you know, alone to my fond care.

Long had some hidden grief, like a slow fire,

Wasted his vitals;—on the bed of death,

One object seem'd to harrow up his soul,

The picture of Alphonso in the chamber:

On that his eye was set.—Methinks I see him,

His ashy hue, his grizzled bristling hair,

His palms spread wide. For ever would he cry,

“That awful form, how terrible he frowns!

See how he bares his livid leprous breast,

And points the deadly chalice!”

*Count.*] Ha! even so!

*Countess.*] Sometimes he'd seize my hands, and grasp them  
close,

And strain them to his hollow burning eyes;

Then falter out, “I am, I am a villain;

Mild angel, pray for me; stir not, my child!

It comes again; oh! do not leave my side.”

At last, quite spent with mortal agonies,

His soul went forth; and heaven have mercy on him!

*Count.*]



*Count.*] Enough. Thy tale has almost iced my blood.  
 Let me not think. Hortensia, on thy duty,  
 Suffer no breath like this to pass thy lips:  
 I will not taint my noble father's honour,  
 By vile suspicions suck'd from nature's dregs,  
 And the loose ravings of distemper'd fancy.

*Countess.*] Yet O decline this challenge!

*Count.*]

That hereafter.

Mean time prepare my daughter, to receive  
 A husband of my choice. Should Godfrey come,  
 (Strife might be so prevented) bid her try  
 Her beauty's power. Stand thou but neuter, Fate!  
 Courage and art shall arm me from \* mankind.\*

This scene is extremely well written, and must consequently please in the closet; but those who would wish to feel the full effect of it on the stage, must see that excellent actress Miss Young, in the part of the Countess.

Our second quotation shall be taken from the third scene of the fourth act, where the business and interesting part of the fable (perhaps unavoidably) standing still, the author seems to have taken uncommon pains to decorate his piece with rich imagery and poetical ornament.

### ‘ S C E N E III.

‘ *Countess.*] Will then these dreadful sounds ne’er leave my ears?  
 “ Our marriage was accurs’d; too long we have liv’d  
 In bonds forbid; think me no more thy husband;  
 The avenging bolt, for that incestuous name,  
 Falls on my house; and spreads the ruin wide,  
 For our offence, o’er this afflicted land.”  
 These were his words.

*Adelaide.*] O ponder then no more!  
 Lo! where the blessed minister of peace,  
 (He whose mild counsels wont to charm your care,)  
 Is kindly come to cheer your drooping soul;  
 And see, the good man weeps.

*Countess.*]

What! weep for me!

\* We are sorry to observe that this line, which concludes the act, is unworthy of its author. The expression of arming *from* mankind, instead of *against*, is certainly very awkward and ungrammatical.—We meet also in this tragedy with two words which we would gladly expunge from it, viz. *interrogatories* in the first act,

‘ I will cut short thy *interrogatories* ;’  
 and in the second, *transfer*,

‘ Suffer this hasty *transfer* of your child.’

These would certainly sound better in Westminster-hall and Jonathan’s coffee house than on Covent-Garden stage.

*Austin.*]

*Austin.*] Ay, tears of blood from my heart's inmost core,  
And count them drops of water from my eyes,  
Could they but wash out from your memory  
The deep affliction you now labour with.

*Countess.*] Then still there is some pity left in man:  
I judged you all by him, and so I wrong'd you.  
I would have told my story to the sea,  
When it roar'd wildest; bid the lionses,  
Robb'd of her young, look with compassion on me;  
Rather than hoped in any form of man  
To find one drop of human gentleness.

*Austin.* (*approaching her.*) Most honour'd lady!—

*Countess.*] —Pray you, come not near me.

I am contagion all; some wicked sin,  
Prodigious, unrepented sin, has stain'd me.  
Father, 'twould blast thee but to hear the crimes,  
This woman, who was once the wife of Raymond,  
This curs'd forsaken woman here, has acted.

*Austin.*] What slanderous tongue dare thus profane your virtue?  
Madam, I know you well; and, by my order,  
Each day, each hour of your unspotted life,  
Might give as fair a lesson to the world,  
As churchmen's tongues can preach, or saints could practise.

*Countess.*] He charges me with all—Thou, poor Hortensia!  
What guilt, prepost'rous guilt, is thine to answer!

*Ade.*] In mercy wound not thus your daughter's soul.

*Austin.*] A villain or a madman might say this.

*Countess.*] What shall I call him? He, who was my husband;  
My child, thy father;—He'll disclaim thee too.  
But let him cast off all the ties of nature,

Abandon us to grief and misery,  
Still will I wander with thee o'er the world:  
I will not wish my reason may forsake me,  
Nor sweet oblivious dulness steep my sense,  
While thy soft age may want a mother's care,  
A mother's tenderness, to wake and guard thee.

*Ade.*] And, if the love of your dear Adelaide,  
Her reverence, duty, endless gratitude  
For all your angel goodness, now can move you,  
Oh, for my sake (lest quite you break my heart,)  
Wear but a little outside show of comfort;  
Awhile pretend it, though you feel it not,  
And I will bless you for deceiving me.

*Countess.*] I know 'tis weakness, folly, to be mov'd thus;  
And these, I hope, are my last tears for him.  
Alas, I little knew, deluded wretch!  
His riotous fancy glow'd with Isabel;  
That not a thought of me possess'd his mind,  
But coldness and aversion; how to shun me,  
And turn me forth a friendless wanderer.

*Austin.*



*Austin.*] Vain were the attempt to palliate injuries,  
Too foul in their own nature to receive  
Whiteness from words ; but, lady, for your peace,  
Think, conscience is the deepest source of anguish :  
A bosom, free like your's, has life's best sunshine ;  
'Tis the warm blaze in the poor herdsman's hut ;  
That, when the storm howls o'er his humble thatch,  
Brightens his clay-built walls, and cheers his soul.  
You pay the forfeit of the aggressor's wrong,  
Suffering the pangs, which guilt alone should suffer.

*Countess.*] O father, reason is for moderate sorrow ;  
For wounds which time has balm'd ; but mine are fresh,  
All bleeding fresh, and pain beyond my patience.  
Ungrateful ! cruel ! how have I deserved it ! —  
Thou tough, tough heart, break for my ease at once !

*Austin.*] I scarce, methinks, can weigh him with himself ;  
Vexations strange have fallen on him of late ;  
And his distemper'd fancy drives him on  
To rash designs, where disappointment made him.

*Countess.*] Ah no ! his wit is settled, and most subtle ;  
Pride and wild blood are his distemper, father.  
But here I bid farewell to grief and fondness :  
Let him go kneel, and sigh to Isabel ;  
And may he as obdurate find her heart,  
As his has been to me !

*Austin.*] Why that's well said ; —  
'Tis better thus, than with consuming sorrow  
To feed on your own life. Give anger scope :  
Time then at length will blunt this killing sense ;  
And peace, he ne'er must know again, be your's.

*Countess.*] I was a woman, full of tenderness ;  
I am a woman, stung by injuries.  
Narbonne was once my husband, my protector ;  
He was — what was he not ? — He is my tyrant ;  
The unnatural tyrant of a heart that lov'd him.  
With cool deliberate baseness he forsakes me ;  
With scorn as steadfast shall my soul repay it.

*Austin.*] You know the imminent danger threatens him  
From Godfrey's fearful claim ?

*Countess.*] Too well I know it ;  
A fearful claim indeed !

*Austin.*] To-morrow's sun  
Will see him at these gates ; but trust my faith,  
No violence shall reach you. The rash count  
(Lost to himself) by force detains me here.  
Vain is his force : — our holy sanctuary,  
Whate'er betides, shall give your virtue shelter ;  
And peace and piety alone approach you.

*Countess.*] O that the friendly bosom of the earth  
Would close on me for ever !

*Austin.*]

*Austin.*] These ill thoughts  
Must not be cherish'd. That all-righteous power  
Whose hand inflicts, knows to reward our patience:  
Farewel! command me ever as your servant,  
And take the poor man's all, my prayers and blessing.\*

The colouring of this scene our readers will acknowledge to be highly finished. The comparison\* of a clear conscience to the warm blaze in the herdsman's hut is a very happy one, and finely expressed.

This tragedy, with all its beauties, which are numerous, has one capital and essential defect, viz. the want of a proper moral lesson resulting from the whole.

"I am not blind, (says Mr. Walpole, in his preface to the first edition of the *Castle of Otranto*) to my author's defects. I could wish he had grounded his plan on a more useful moral than this, that, *the sins of fathers are visited on their children to the third and fourth generation*. I doubt whether in his time any more than at present, ambition curbed its appetite of dominion from the dread of so remote a punishment."—The same objection which Mr. Walpole made to his own novel, must every spectator and every reader make to Mr. Jephson's drama. The *Count of Narbonne* is judiciously painted by the author as passionate, ambitious, sensual, and revengeful, though guiltless of the intended murder of his daughter; and therefore we do not lament his fate: but what had the wronged mother and the innocent daughter done, that should involve them in the same punishment with the murderous Alphonso, and the false, ambitious Narbonne? Why must all poetical justice be thus sacrificed to inculcate an idea that is shocking to truth and equity? Will such a notion, if universally received, operate towards rendering mankind more cautious of committing crimes that may be attended with such consequences? The effect, as Mr. Walpole properly observed, is much too remote, while the undeserved punishment of innocence is to the last degree oppressive, and must tend to discourage men from the practice of virtue, not only so unjustly but severely chastised.

Our author's fable is liable also to this censure: the cata-

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\* This simile is better timed, and is introduced with much more propriety than that of Narbonne's, in the third scene of the fifth act, when he says,

Fame, like water, &c.

It is entirely out of nature for such a character as the Count, when his mind is agitated by contending passions, and in the height of distress, to be searching after comparisons. All that Narbonne says on this occasion is prolix, and should have been omitted.

strophe,



strophe, which he has founded on injustice, is produced by superstition; the accomplishment of a prophecy. What conclusion can be drawn from hence, but that oracles, divinations, and prophecies, should be believed, and must always be fulfilled? Such notions can only tend to enslave the mind, and bring us back to the long exploded errors of ignorance and barbarism. We wish therefore to see a tragedy of Mr. Jephson's free from those objections, and from which a better moral may be drawn than from the Count of Narbonne.

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*The Fair Circassian. A Tragedy. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Baldwin.*

**T**HOUGH we do not in the *Fair Circassian* meet with that artful conduct of the fable, and knowledge of stage-effect, together with that even flow of language, correctness, and precision, which so eminently distinguish the *Count of Narbonne*; it has, notwithstanding, a sufficient share of merit to entitle it to no inconsiderable portion of public applause, especially when considered as the ingenious author's *first* dramatic production. We cannot, at the same time, compliment Mr. Pratt on the choice of his subject: which, though well calculated for an Oriental tale, adorned by Hawkesworth with pleasing machinery, fine sentiments, and easy diction, does not furnish that chain of interesting events, or that display of character which are essentially necessary to the formation of an affecting tragedy. The rivalry of two brothers, without some very new and striking situations that may deeply interest the spectator, is a circumstance too common and familiar to surprise or affect us; not to mention that the author has, by no means, made the best use of the few materials with which Hawkesworth had supplied him. The stop put to the celebration of the nuptial rites, in the third act, by the treachery of the priest, awakens the attention of the audience, and seems to promise an interesting suspense; but this loses all its effect, and appears flat and insipid from the immediate discovery of the whole by Omar. The tale is disbelieved by Hamet and Almeida, and every thing is just in the same situation they were before the false oracle was delivered. In the two last acts the plot is intricate and perplexed; the meeting of Almeida and Almorán in the dark, and her mistaking him for Hamet, are awkward and improbable circumstances; and the catastrophe, not being naturally produced, gives but little satisfaction.

With

With all those disadvantages in point of fable, and the in-artificial management of it, there are parts of this tragedy which lay claim to our warmest approbation. The characters of Almorán and Hamet are well contrasted and supported; the sentiments just and noble; and the diction, in general, easy and poetical; though, in some parts, not so chaste and correct as from a writer of taste, abilities, and experience might have been expected.

As a specimen of our dramatist's style and manner, we shall present our readers with the first scene of the second act, between Hamet and Omar, where the venerable old priest speaks with great dignity, and gives his young master some excellent advice in very good language.

ACT II. SCENE I.

HAMET, OMAR.

*Hamet.*] Thou good old man—Thou full of days and honour,  
Guide of my youth, and glory of my crown,  
My bosom labours with a friend's impatience  
As now I lead thee to these sacred feats,—  
These awful sepulchres, where Persia's kings,  
My ancestors, *repose in solemn silence*—  
Oh, my heart throbs till I have told thee all.

*Omar.*] My prince, my child! I praise thy tender zeal,  
And though oppressive time upon this head  
Hath heavy snow'd full many a winter's whiteness,  
Yet once this heart—the memory still is dear—

• Amongst the inaccuracies of language and expression, in this tragedy, may be reckoned the following, which we would wish to see corrected in future editions.—One of the lovers talks of drinking

‘—large draughts of passion;’  
and speaking of his mistress, says,  
‘her eyes *shot suns*.’

Almorán says,

‘My *defrauded* world's at length restor'd.’

A *defrauded* world can never, with any propriety of language, signify the world which I have been *defrauded of*.

To *intercede* the merciful—instead of to *intercede with*.

Who so fit as *thee*—instead of *thou*.

*Descend* thy choral choir—instead of *make to descend*.

‘Deposit lov'd of ev'ry little care.’

‘This is another Caled of the *core*.’

‘—holy men their *sanctities* prepare.’

Where's the *virtues*—for where are the *virtues*.

These, with several others equally inelegant, improper, and ungrammatical, should be altered.

Felx



Felt a fond passion, pure and warm as thine.  
To all that rateth high a virgin's worth,  
Sense, beauty, soul, long since was Omar wed.

*Hamet.*] If thou hast lov'd, with unfatigued ear,  
Thou wilt allow the sweet prolixity,  
Love's soft delay, and tender repetition.

"But, oh! by what sad stroke of cruel fortune  
Fell from thy reverend arms this dearest treasure?"

*Omar.*] "Full forty years Olmana to this bosom  
Minister'd every balm of virtuous softness.  
Passion from reason caught the wish compos'd,  
The hope obedient, and the steady purpose,  
A life devote to nature and to Heaven.  
At length it pleas'd the gods to take her from me,  
And pluck this pillow from my aged head;  
Her death was sudden, but her life prepar'd.  
In my first widow'd days I felt as man;  
At length her sacred spirit seem'd to chide,  
And whisper'd that it only went before  
To intercede the Merciful for mine.  
I left her with the gods, and wept no more."  
But come, what says Almeida?

*Hamet.*] How her name  
Like sudden sun-beams darting thro' a cloud,  
Lights up an instant joy in Hamet's bosom.  
Oh, had'st thou seen her all dissolv'd in passion—  
Passion, tho' yielding, modestly chastis'd,  
"And shaded by a delicate reserve,  
Only to look more lovely thro' the veil"—  
Had'st thou but seen her, eloquently dumb,  
Sink in her father's arms, confess her softness  
In all the sweet disorders of the heart,  
Then blusht and sigh, and even weep for words!—

*Omar.*] When does Abdallah's daughter then consent.—

*Hamet.*] Hear it, ye favouring heav'ns, and every breeze,  
Bear on your viewless wings the tender tidings,  
I shall to-morrow claim—

*Omar.*] To-morrow!  
Knows royal Almorán this sudden purpose?

*Hamet.*] Ah Omar thou hast sprinkled drops of ice  
Cold on my heart, to freeze the flame of love.  
Not all the jealous vigilance of fondness;  
Not the still waking eyes of faithful Ali  
Can foil the felon arts of wily Caled.  
Almorán again hath seen her, friend—and much,  
Still much I fear lest—

*Omar.*] Oh, forbear;  
Wear not a doubtful eye upon a brother,  
Nor let suspicion fear thy generous heart.

*Hamet.*] Heaven knows my fondness: knows the generous love,  
"Respect sincere, and tenderness I bear him,

And the soft shade I cast o'er all his failings :—

Dear is my brother to this faithful heart,  
As the warm tide that constant flows to feed it.

*Omar.*] The fainted Solyman thou know'st decreed,

That ye should wear his yet unblemish'd crown

In amity together, wield his sceptre

As brothers and as friends.—Unite to bless,

By a well-order'd government, the land :

The smiling arts of peace diffuse around,

Or give—where patriot virtue points the cause

To be the cause of heav'n—fresh nerves to war ;

O'er the wide wave to spread the advent'rous sail,

Lift modest genius from the lowly vale,

And bid it blossom in a warmer soil,

More near its native skies.—

*Hamet.*

Dear parent sage,

Deep are thy counsels 'grav'd upon this heart.

*Omar.*] Yet spare a moment to the voice of truth,

Even from the hour of panting softness spare it.

Oh ne'er forget, thou noble youth, 'tis thine

To taste with Almorán the bliss supreme

That flows from all the great, the glorious virtues,

Worthy of kings, on kings alone conferr'd ;

Pity that softens justice : merit, guarded

From bolder arrogance, e'en by the shield,

The temper'd shield of royalty itself.

“ Blessings deriv'd from blessings well bestow'd,

Delights like these—oh, may they long be thine,

Grow greater by division.” Yet remember

If e'er thou'rt tempted—which the gods forbid—

Should'st thou, as faction or as favour urges ;

Should private passions, or domestick broils,

Frauds of the state, or follies of the palace,

A mistress or a minister, e'er lead

Thine eye, thy hand, thy heart from what thou ow'st,

From what the laws, the land, the people claim—

Claim as a duty from the prince they serve,

Not Persia's utmost pomp combin'd to soothe thee,

“ Not all the graces of the lov'd Almeida,

Nor yet the princely pledges of her faith

Climbing thy knee and blooming round thy board,

Not ev'n the husband's pride, the father's transport,”

Can snatch thee from the shame reserv'd for him,

Who, base and lawless, wantons with his power :

“ Covers with blood his violated country,

To an ensanguin'd fabre turns his sceptre,

And more than traitor desolates the empire.

*Hamet.*] Oh, never, never may this breast, which throbs

With all a patriot's, all a parent's ardour,

To serve the weal of Persia, feel a curse

So charg'd with anguish, or so full of horror !

With more hope, encourage the author to produce another full more worthy of our attention.



*The Fair Circassian. A Tragedy.*

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With my lov'd subjects teach me, gods, to share  
The plenteous glories of this fertile land,  
While royal Almorán partakes the joy,  
And late posterity attests our virtue!  
Now, then, my friend, I must require thy aid.

Omar.] What would my gracious prince?

Hamet.]

Engage

His second father in an instant office  
Of tender import—This letter—take it Omar.  
Why trembles thus my foolish hand to give it?  
'Tis to my brother, and contains—oh heav'ns!

Omar.] "The tidings of to-morrow. This perchance—  
'Tis dangerous; [*aside*] soft—is there no other way?"

Hamet.] Why pauses Omar?

Why deeply bent to earth his thoughtful eye?

Omar.] Thy love hath spoke, I doubt not, brotherly.

Hamet.] Omar, my heart was in it. Take it then,  
O take it, friend!" There, in that little space  
Are all my future hopes and fears inscribed;  
It is the history of a brother's love,  
Writ to a brother's friendship—Yes, my Omar,  
This is the hour which Almorán devotes  
To private kindness, and unburthen'd freedom;  
Upon his sacred moments thou hast claim;  
And who so fit as thee to grace a message  
Where Hamet's happiness so closes, centres?

Omar.] Dear to this feeble bosom are ye both;  
I honour, love, respect—do all but fear you.  
The man we dread was never truly lov'd.

Hamet.] Delay no longer then—oh think a little,  
Something allow to ardent love's impatience;  
No rest shall Hamet know till thy return,  
But trembling, anxious, wait thy coming, Omar.—  
In the bless'd grove that shades Almeida's chamber,  
There will I kneel, there awful bend to heaven,  
That all our wishes may be crown'd in peace. [*Exit Hamet.*]

Omar alone.] I would not check his joys too far; and yet  
Too plain, alas, these aged eyes can see  
A train of mischiefs gathering round our heads.  
This letter notes the hour, when to the mosque  
Hamet conducts his fair Circassian bride.  
Ye mighty Powers, who rule the royal soul,  
And touch the master chords that sway our nature,  
Let kindred kindness save my kings from discord,  
Preserve the publick welfare, private quiet:  
And these old eyes shall pour their thanks in tears. [*Exit.*]

There are many other passages in the *Fair Circassian*, which  
will give our readers pleasure in the perusal. The deserved ap-  
plause and favourable reception which this tragedy has met with,  
will, we hope, encourage the author to produce another still  
more worthy of our attention.

## FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Séance publique de la Faculté de Médecine de Paris, tenue le 9 Décembre, 1779, dans les Ecoles extérieures de la Sorbonne. 135 Pages in 4to. Paris.*

**A**N interesting collection, beginning with the account given by M. de l'Epine, to the faculty, of the dissertations addressed to him on the question proposed in 1778, for the prize of the session of 1779. The prize has been founded for ever by the late Dr. Malouin; the question for 1779 was: 'Which are the physical, moral, and political advantages of children being nursed by their own mothers, both for the children, and for the mothers themselves?' This question was answered in one memoir, greatly to the satisfaction of the faculty.

II. M. le Vacher de la Feutrie's speech, in which he proposes and explains the subject of the prize for the next year, with the motives of the faculty for proposing it. It is: '1. Are there certain signs of the presence of worms either in the stomach or in the intestinal canal? 2. Which are those signs? 3. When is the presence of those insects dangerous? 4. Which are the curative means, in the different circumstances?'

III. Relation of the judgements pronounced by the faculty, on the accounts given by the committee, on the eight following objects:

1. On the machine and reservoirs for the filtration and purification of the water taken on the point of the Isle of St. Louis: approved.

2. On proposals for establishing a public infirmary in a place called au Gros Caillou, for receiving and treating patients for a moderate price per day. The faculty has highly approved of the proposal.

3. A memoir returned by the prévôt des marchands, or chief magistrate of Paris, to the faculty, containing complaints of several private individuals, neighbours of the fire machine of the late Mess. Perrier, near la Grille de Chaillot. The plaintiffs were apprehensive lest their health might be injured by the smoke of the coal-fire continually burning there for turning that pump, or water-work. On the report of the committee, who had examined the place, the faculty has pronounced their fears to be groundless.

4. A powder presented by an English gentleman, Mr. Fowler, as fit for stopping external hæmorrhages. After several trials and experiments, successfully made by the committee, on animals and even on men, the powder has been approved. M. Desseffarts observes that the judgment of the faculty has since been farther confirmed by the complete success of that powder on a patient whose leg was cut off in the hospital de la Charité: and subjoins, that the faculty keeps in her archives, under the seal of secrecy, the composition of that powder, which its author has communicated to her commissioners.

5. On the dogs-skins dressed by M. Robert, the secret of whose dressing had been purchased by a citizen who had experienced their good effects, and who intended to publish that secret for the benefit of the public. In order to assure himself of the fidelity of the receipt, that philanthrope had requested the faculty to examine it. From the experiments made in consequence of this request by the committee of the faculty, it appeared that the balm with which these



these skins are dressed, is, in fact, the same which M. Robert had of M. Fagon, first physician to Lewis XIV. And, in order to promote the wishes of the generous purchaser, the faculty has ordered that receipt to be printed and sent to the apothecaries of Paris, to whom alone the preparation and sale of these compositions were to be entrusted.

6. In a considerable town in France, suspicions had arisen and spread, that breweries might be dangerous to the health and lives of their neighbours. These fears, it seems, arose from the experiments which modern physicians had made on gas. As the animals exposed to the gas of fermenting beer, die very soon, it was but natural for common people to consider those vapours as very pernicious. But they do not know, that the same vapour which when pure, is apt to kill men and beasts instantaneously, does not hurt them in the least, when mixed with a quantity of common air sufficient for respiration: now, as in the neighbourhood of breweries, and even in breweries, when they are not too closely shut, the gas of the fermentation is always mixed with a quantity of air continually renewed and abundantly sufficient for respiration, it follows, that there are no dangers to be apprehended from the neighbourhood of breweries, or of cellars where wine, cyder, and other matters are fermenting.

7. A method for tinning copper vessels, presented to the faculty by Madame Dumazis; and after many trials and comparisons, approved of and adopted by the faculty, as preferable to those which had hitherto been employed.

8. A metallic mixture, in which zinc is the chief ingredient, presented by a M. Doucet, a founder, for making casseroles, and other kitchen furniture. This metal, to which the Parisian Academy of Sciences had refused their approbation, for kitchen utensils used in dressing victuals, has here obtained that of the faculty for the same use.

(The Academy had refused her approbation to vessels made of that metal, 1. because when hot, they are liable to break on the least shock; 2. because the acid liquors used in kitchens, yield with the zinc, a merallie salt of a disagreeable taste, and apt to injure the ragouts, and perhaps even health itself.)

This account of the judgments of the faculty is succeeded by another relation of the same M. Desessarts, containing an interesting and well-written abstract of most of the physical theses defended by the bachelors of physic, during the course of their licence.

This abstract is succeeded by the eulogies of M. Joseph Jussieu, by M. le Preux; of M. Hazon, and of M. Michel, by M. Desessarts.

M. Joseph Jussieu, third brother to Anthony, and to the illustrious Bernard Jussieu, went, in his early youth, with the other academicians, to Peru; and after forty years absence returned to France, absolutely deprived of memory, and property. His case was indeed a lamentable one: *Je ne veux me permettre aucune conjecture, says M. le Preux, sur la cause de l'infortune de M. Joseph Jussieu; je ferai seulement observer qu'il exerça avec distinction pendant quarante ans la pratique de la médecine, dans un pays riche, et où l'on sçait être reconnoissant; que sans le moindre avis il fut embarqué, transporté ensuite à Paris, et déposé chez son frère, (M. Bernard Jussieu) n'ayant ni papiers ni effets, avec le simple bagage du vrai philosophe, c'est à dire, portant sur lui-même toute*

sa garde-robe, et encore étoit-elle d'une modestie à affliger les regards.

Reflexions on this tragical incident, and on the singular way of relating it, will rise of themselves in the mind of every sensible reader.

The cause of M. Michel's death was singular, and worth being recorded, as a caution to young and alert people always to walk cautiously. He enjoyed, says M. Desessart, perfect health. A false step exposed him to an evident danger. The violent effort he was forced to make to recover his equilibrium, and to prevent his fall, raised through his whole frame a violent commotion, which was soon succeeded by an acute fever and the heaviest symptoms. The stroke of death had been given; no art nor power of physic could save him, and the unhappy youth died on the sixth day.

After these eulogies follow an account of the means of rearing foundlings; especially of the diet and food fit for them, if destitute of woman's milk; extracts of the different memoirs, and a consultation of the faculty on the same subject; all of them so full and interesting, as to admit of no abstract.

A dissertation, by M. Majault, on the effect of vinegar, which had been recommended as a proper remedy against the deleterious effects of arsenic. Here M. Majault relates a great number of chemical experiments made by himself and M. de la Planche, Doctor of the Parisian Faculty of Physic. The final result of these experiments is, that vegetable acids are by no means to be trusted to as proper remedies against the dreadful effects of arsenic.

A memoir, by Dr. Mallet, on the quinquina of Martinico, known under the name of quinquina piton; so called from the hills in the French West Indian islands on which it grows. This species of quinquina was first brought to France, by M. Badier, a planter of Guadaloupe, and examined by Dr. Descemet, a skilful botanist at Paris. From his account this quinquina is a genuine one, and much like that of Peru. The chemical analysis of this new quinquina, and its comparison with that of Peru, were made by M. de la Planche; from the observations made by several physicians it appears even superior to that of Peru in several respects: because, say they:

1. Que le quinquina piton, pris en decoction à la dose de deux gros, dans une chopine d'eau, et à la dose d'un gros en bol, même de demi gros, est vomitif & purgatif.

2. Qu'il guerit les fievres intermittentes récentes; qu'il suspend celles qui sont anciennes, et qui ont résisté longtems à l'action du quinquina du Pérou, et qu'il est même à présumer, (continues M. Mallet) qu'il les auroit guéries toutes radicalement, s'il m'eut été possible d'en faire prendre encore deux doses aux malades que j'ai traités, & qui n'ont pas voulu en continuer l'usage.

3. Que son action est très-prompte.

4. Enfin, que la propriété qu'il a de faire vomir & de purger est un avantage précieux qui doit même lui assurer la préférence sur le quinquina du Pérou, dans le traitement des fievres intermittentes, puisqu'il réunit à lui seul la faculté d'évacuer copieusement les malades, et celle de guérir la fièvre.

Si nous considérons maintenant, le quinquina piton sous des vues politiques, nous croyons, qu'indépendamment des avantages dont nous venons de parler, il mérite celui de fixer l'attention du gouvernement



vement en ce qu'il peut devenir pour la France une nouvelle branche de commerce très-intéressante.

Yet we are apt to think that the real value of this new branch of trade must chiefly, or rather entirely, depend on the real medicinal virtues of that quinquina pison.

This dissertation is followed by a learned botanical memoir on the chestnut tree, (châtaignier) by M. Descement, who proves that Linnæus has improperly classed Tournefort's *Castanea*, and the same Botanist's *Fagus*, under one and the same genus.

The last memoir of this collection, treats of the use of opium in intermitting agues: it is written by Dr. Morillot des Landes, and designed to prove that opium, though very useful in many cases, is not therefore advisable in all, as a specific remedy: and that, like every other medicine, it must be administered, cum grano salis, or with judgment and caution.

This short abstract will sufficiently evince the merits and value of the labours of the College of Physicians of Paris.

## FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

*Opusculi Mathematici.* 8vo. Segovia.

BY Dom Pedro Giannini, Professor of the Royal Corps of Artillery in Spain; the same who has already, in 1773, published in Latin, at Parma, in quarto, *Opuscula*, on hydraulics, on the cycloids, on the lost work of Apollonius, which Dom Giannini has attempted to restore after the indications of Pappus.

This present valuable publication treats of the chief properties of the cissoid, and of the solution of a problem in mechanics, relating to the curve described by a body tending to a center in a direct ratio of the distance; and on a new species of trajectory, which, turning round a center, is always cut at right angles by a given line.

*Méthode nouvelle & générale pour tracer facilement des Cadres solaires sur toutes Surfaces planes, en Situations quelconques, sans Calculs ni Embarras d'Instrumens, par un seul Problème Géométrique qui fait connoître l'Axe et la Soufflayre, la Latitude du Lieu, la Situation du Plan, la Déclinaison du Soleil, et le Parallele du Jour, lors de l'Opération. Principes et Usage du Comput & de l'Art de Vérifier les Dates. Par M. de la Prise, ancien Architecte, &c. 260 Pages in 8vo. with 23 Plates. Caen.*

Containing the description of a solid, by whose means points of shadow are easily taken; and the method of drawing all sorts of dials, by three points of shadow, by means of an hyperbola; the demonstrations and the practice. A treatise of gnomonics, of 150 pages, is here succeeded by an abstract (in 100 pages) of the principles contained in the great work on the art of verifying dates, which has been published by the learned Benedictines, Dom Clemencet and Dom Durand. The abstract shows how to find the epochs, the festivals, the days of the week, of whatever year: the year and the day are to be found by means of the other chronological circumstances.

*L'Iliade d'Homere en Vers François. Par M. le Baron de Beaumanoir, Chevalier de l'Ordre de S. Louis, ancien Capitaine de Dragons. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris.*

The author confesses, in his advertisement, that 'there may possibly be some temerity in thus presenting to the public a new translation of Homer, after those which have already been so favourably received. But his prevailing taste for poetry, his fancy raised by repeated perusals of the greatest of poets, his very gratitude itself have not permitted him to remain silent. He has indeed perceived in the Iliad long-winded passages, repetitions, too frequent descriptions of battles; he has therefore taken the liberty of retrenching sometimes, but with all possible circumspection, in order to render the perusal (of Homer) more interesting. As for the enumeration which terminates the second canto, he thought it quite sufficient to translate it into prose, though from the easy flow of his versification, he says, he might as easily have translated that passage also into verse. And indeed so far is his poetical vein from being exhausted by this translation of the Iliad, that it has already produced many cantos of the Odyssey too!

Alas, poor blind old Homer has too often been very cavalierly treated by many a knight-errant; and perhaps by no one more so than by this captain of dragoons.

*Mémoires sur différens sujets de Literature. Par M. A. Mongez, Chanoine régulier, &c. 95 Pages. 8vo. Paris.*

Three dissertations: the first, on the antiquity of hospitals; the second, on the use of lacrymatory vessels; the third, on the Colossus of Rhodes; with a discourse on the study of French literature.

*Traité des Eaux Minérales de Chateldon, de celles de Vichy & de Hauteville en Bourbonnois, avec le Détail de leurs Propriétés Médicinales & leur Analyse. Par M. Desbrest, Conseiller du Roi, M. D. &c. Intendant des Eaux Minérales & Médicinales de Chateldon en Bourbonnois. 359 Pages in 12mo. à Moulins & à Paris.*

The mineral waters of Chateldon have but lately risen into notice. The author of this work first observed their good effects on himself, and then on many other patients; and does not scruple to place them in the first rank.

*L'Art de soigner les Pieds; contenant un Traité de Cors, Verrues, Durillons, Oignons, Engelures, les Accidens des Ongles & leur Difformité. Présenté au Roi, par M. Laforest, Chirurgien PEDICURE de Sa Majesté & de la Famille Royale, 12mo. Paris & Versailles.*

One hundred and thirty-nine pages on the various disorders of the feet, enumerated in the title, by a professed surgeon PEDICURE.

*Nouvelles Observations & Recherches Analytiques sur la Magnésie du Sel Epson, suivies de Réflexions sur l'Union Chimique, des Corps. Par Pierre Butin. 8vo. Geneva.*

A very elaborate and instructive performance.

*Essai sur la Minéralogie des Monts Pyrénées; suivi d'un Catalogue des Plantes observées dans cette Chaîne des Moutagnes: Ouvrage enrichi de beaucoup de Planches & de Cartes. 4to. Paris.*

An important work, the result of great labour and expence; warmly approved of by the Parisian Academy of Sciences, and printed under their privilege.

MONTHLY



# MONTHLY CATALOGUE

## POLITICAL.

*Observations on the natural and civil Rights of Mankind, the Prerogatives of Princes, and the Powers of Government. By the Rev. Thomas Northcote. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.*

**I**N this pamphlet, Mr. Northcote produces many ingenious and plausible arguments, in support of the universal right of the people to election and representation. It seems to be, in respect of government, as in that of religion, that though the general ideas of both are conformable to the light of nature, certain modifications are necessary, for adapting them, with advantage, to the practice of mankind. While, therefore, we applaud Mr. Northcote's liberal zeal for the universal rights of the people, we cannot help considering the unlimited extension of those privileges as, in effect, injurious to society, and subversive of the public order and general happiness, to maintain which is the object of every well constituted government.

*A Letter to the Right Hon. Charles Jenkinson. 4to. 2s. Debrett.*

The author of this Letter, after indulging himself in a vein of petulant scurrility, against a most respectable and respected character, proceeds to arraign, with all the virulence of party-spirit, the conduct of administration, in regard to the American war. He descants much on the efficient and official council: in treating of which, he totally misrepresents the great authority, mentioned in support of that distinction. Towards the conclusion of the Letter, this modest, independent Whig, is so obliging as to mention the names of those persons to whom, in his opinion, his majesty ought to entrust the direction of public affairs.

*A Speech of the Hon. Charles James Fox, at a general Meeting of the Electors of Westminster. A Broad Sheet. 3d. Debrett.*

A republication, from the news-papers, of the transactions and harangues, in Westminster-Hall, on the 10th of December; printed on a large sheet of paper, ornamented with an engraving of Mr. Fox.

*On the Debt of the Nation, compared with its Revenue; and the Impossibility of carrying on the War without Public Oeconomy. 8vo. 2s. Debrett.*

In this production we meet with an account of the national debt; of the annual revenues for the support of government, and the charge of collecting them; observations on the commissioners reports, and on the expenditures for the civil list; with strictures on the navy and army expences, compared with their amount in the last war. In respect of those subjects, the author is apparently well informed; but to render his observations entirely satisfactory, it is necessary that the estimates upon which he proceeds, should be authenticated. Mean while,

while, we may observe, that the design of the whole seems to be, to recommend economy in the public finances, upon a plan less extensive than that which was proposed by Mr. Burke, in the last sessions of the preceding parliament.

*The Signs of the Times: or, a System of true Politics.* By James Illingworth, D. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. A. Donaldson.

A rhapsody on original sin, types, opposition, rebellion, the American war, and a variety of other religious and political subjects.

*Observations on a Pamphlet entitled An Enquiry into the Advantages and Disadvantages resulting from Bills of Inclosure.* 8vo. 2s. Bew.

The author of this tract is a zealous advocate, as every thinking and philosophical man must be, for the enclosure of commons. He considers a bill for this purpose in the light of 'a petition to secure the property of certain persons from depredation, and to put it into their power to enjoy and improve their own, and only their own.' He shews the absurdity of leaving a large tract of land unimproved and neglected, merely that a poor man may keep a flock of geese upon it; when the same ground, if properly cultivated, would maintain several families. He states the expences, and other inconveniences, attending the present method of carrying bills of enclosure into execution; and lays down the plan of a general act of parliament for the enclosure of all the commons in England worth cultivating. This, he thinks, would promote population, and produce such additional revenues, as in time would discharge the national debt.

In the generality of bills of enclosure, it has been the practice to allot a certain proportion in lieu of tithes, as a full equivalent and compensation for them. Much has been lately said in the house of lords upon this subject; and it is anxiously expected, that a bill will yet pass for an universal commutation. Our author freely acknowledges the pernicious tendency of tithes; but insists, that any allotment of land in exchange, must injure either the tenants, the landlords, or the clergy. To prove this point, he gives us a variety of calculations, on which he says: 'By these calculations it appears, that a proportion of one-sixth, to one-seventh, will in general be as much, as the laity can give in lieu of tithes, without loss to themselves; but it is apparent, that the clergy must be sufferers, whenever they accept of it. On the other hand, should such an equivalent be made to them, as appears to me they have a right to expect and demand, containing a quantity of land, the rents of which are equal to the tithe they give up, it follows, that the laity must be greatly injured by the bargain.'—He therefore proposes a pecuniary compensation, to be paid out of each titheable farm, of the nature of a rent.

They who wish to see the foregoing paradox explained, must have recourse to the author's calculations,—Here however we shall



shall beg leave to observe, that, in a scheme of commutation, the clergy may give up a part of their legal demands without any real detriment; because at present they very seldom, if ever, receive the full value of their tithes.

## D I V I N I T Y.

*A serious and affectionate Address to all Orders of Men, adapted to this awful Crisis.* 8vo. 1s. Robinson.

The author of this Address is Mr. Thomas Mills, bookseller at Bristol, an enthusiastic admirer of the works of the late Wm. Law, which, he tells us, 'bear every internal character of a divine original.' The poor man, it seems, 'had been bewildered and lost in the endless mazes of doubt and error,' till he happily met with the works of 'this truly illuminated divine.' And now, 'from the love which he bears to his dear fellow-pilgrims, he could not, in the evening of his life, go home to his eternal native country, well contented, till he had pointed out to those, who may yet be strangers to Mr. Law's works, a treasure of such inestimable value.'

*A Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, Nov. 5, 1781.*

By William Crowe, LL.B. 4to. 1s. Cadell.

From the institution of the passover among the Jews, in remembrance of their deliverance out of Egypt, the author of this discourse takes occasion to shew the propriety of our observing the 5th of November, as a day of public thanksgiving. But the commemoration of this day, he says, may well consist with perfect charity towards the Roman Catholics, and with some relaxation of those penalties, by which their religion has been restrained. We have no occasion at present to be alarmed on account of their numbers, their disposition, or the influence and practice of that church, with which they hold communion. These considerations naturally lead him to a review of those precautions, which the people of this nation were obliged to take, when their civil and religious rights were actually violated in the reign of James II.

## M E D I C A L.

*An Enquiry into the Nature, Causes, and Method of Cure of Nervous Disorders.* By Alex. Thomson, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

The author of this Enquiry, after giving a brief description of the nerves, and enumerating many symptoms of their morbid affection, endeavours to account for the prevalence of nervous disorders, upon the general principles of idleness and intemperance, independently of any particular species of modern luxury; and in support of this opinion, he adduces arguments of great weight. Concerning the origin of nervous complaints, he observes, that, for the most part, they may be traced to a weakness of the stomach and bowels; whence if those disorders do not actually derive their earliest

earliest existence, at least the signs of their invasion are there most perceptible.

That, says he, a disease which depends upon irritability, and is supported by a sympathy in the nervous system, derives its origin from the stomach and bowels, is an opinion strongly confirmed by the texture and offices of those parts. Furnished with numerous branches of nerves, there are extremely susceptible of irritation; to which they are also particularly exposed from the weight or resistance of the food, its occasional acrimony, and the stimulating nature of the gastric fluids, rendered yet more acrimonious by vitiated digestion.

The difficulty attending the cure of nervous disorders, is placed by our author in a light peculiarly clear and forcible.

In attempting, says he, the removal of the nervous complaint, the greatest attention is necessary to investigate the precise origin, whether singular or plural, whence it derives its support: for without such knowledge, in vain shall we endeavour to prevent the effects of irritation. With every advantage on our side, we shall often have occasion to regret the obstinacy of the disease. Indeed, that nervous disorders should prove difficult of cure, will not appear surprising, when we consider how much they are distinguished by a variety of opposite indications and circumstances, of a positive and negative, of a physical and moral kind. Amidst the necessity of nourishment, is every impediment to digestion. The impurity of the blood we find aggravated by great irregularity of the discharges. Sleep, however indispensable for recruiting the exhausted strength, in many cases comes not spontaneously; nor can it be procured by medicine, without increasing relaxation. Exercise, absolutely necessary, is often prevented by a listlessness, utterly averse to motion. In morbid irritability, which requires the most soothing treatment, the patient is peculiarly liable to perturbations of body and mind. Notwithstanding incidental or habitual lowness of spirits, which seems to indicate the expedience of some exhilarating liquor, even the moderate use of cordials may be neither effectual nor safe. Anxiety, natural to the complaint, and increased by every consideration, must yet be supported with patience. And lastly, though so complicated a distemper might seem to demand the most active remedies, it is often observed to be aggravated even by those of the gentlest kind.

In the course of this pamphlet we meet with many judicious remarks on the method by which the cure of nervous disorders has hitherto been usually conducted; as well as with an explicit detail of that which is the most rational and most successful. We would, therefore, recommend this ingenious Enquiry not only to the gentlemen of the medical profession, but to all who are afflicted with any symptoms of nervous irritability.



*The Physician's Vade Mecum; or a concise System of the Practice of Physic.* small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinson.

The plan of this elegant little volume is to exhibit a system of the medical art, drawn up in the most practical, and, at the same time, in the concise manner. Such an epitome, it is observed in the preface, is calculated not only to afford, on every occasion, an immediate recourse to the oracular treasures of physic, but to imprint on the mind the most useful and essential precepts of the science. We entirely agree with the author, in respect to the utility of such a work; as we also do with regard to his opinion, that, notwithstanding the numerous late improvements in physic, nothing is so much wanted as a judicious compendium of practice. He observes that the only treatise of this kind is the *PROCESSUS INTERGI* of Sydenham; a work which, however valuable, is now, on account of the progress of observation, become in a great measure obsolete. This treatise, therefore, is intended as a new *Processus Integri*, extracted not from the writings of one physician, but from those of all the most eminent of the present time. In respect of its more extensive plan, as well as of the select observations, of which it consists, it is evidently superior to the celebrated production above mentioned; for beside delivering explicitly the most approved rules in practice, attention has been paid to the identifying every disease, and particularly those which are more obscure, or might be confounded with each other; by always delineating their characteristic and indispensable symptoms. Where prescriptions are given, they have been thrown into notes at the bottom of the page; a method, the editor observes, which places them in a conspicuous view, without interrupting the text. In the arrangement of the diseases, we are first presented with those of a general nature, and afterwards with such as are local. The acute diseases precede the chronical; and in both classes, the distempers are ranked in regular progression from the head downwards. A system so happily imagined, and executed with so much care; which delivers essential observation without tedious detail, and inculcates precept without empiricism, must, we are persuaded, prove highly acceptable to the medical faculty.

*Some Observations on the present Epidemic Dysentery.* By Francis Geach. 1s. Baldwin.

These Observations appear to be drawn from experience, and a careful attention to the sick; but as they coincide, in general, with the remarks of former writers, they serve to confirm, rather than throw any new light on the nature and treatment of the disease.

## NOVELS.

*The Adventures of a Rupee.* 12mo. 3s. sewed. Murray.

This mode of making up a book, and styling it the *Adventures of a Cat, a Dog, a Monkey, a Hackney-coach, a Louse, a Shilling, a Rupee, or—any thing else*, is grown so fashionable, that few

few months pass which do not bring one of them under our inspection. It is indeed a convenient method to writers of the inferior class, of emptying their common-place books, and throwing together all the farrago of public transactions, private characters, old and new stories, every thing, in short, which they can pick up, to afford a little temporary amusement to an idle reader. This is the utmost degree of merit which the best of them aspire to; and, small as it is, more than most of them ever arrive at. The slight performance before us is perhaps one of the best of its little species, and may give half an hour's entertainment to a coffee-house critic, or a lounging traveller, as the style is tolerably easy and correct, and some of the materials are not unentertaining. From these we shall select a short story, that may give our readers an idea of our author's manner, and which has some humour in it.

A Rupee, the relater of these adventures, falls into the hands of a Fakir, or Indian priest. These men travel in large troops, and, like some of the monks in Catholic countries, extort charity by a kind of religious robbery. To deceive the vulgar, they inflict on themselves the most severe penances, and for these sufferings pretend that their Brama, or God, admits them to a knowledge of future events. Concerning a company of these, our Rupee tells the following tale.

' In the midst of these pleasures, (says the Rupee), two Fakirs arrived with the news that the illustrious Hyder Alli had given a general invitation to their body, to dine with him on a certain day. The hope of gain prompted some to attend, vanity not a few, and curiosity many. Among the rest, my master resolved to attend; he sewed me up in the lining of his ragged covering, and in company with about four hundred Fakirs, we set out to be present at the feast given to our body by Hyder Alli.

' Hyder at this time was engaged in several wars, in the course of which, he gave many proofs of great generalship and force of mind.

' He could well counterfeit any character, which it was for his interest to assume. The ill qualities of the human mind, which afford the best handle for governing mankind, he could use to much advantage. — War is conducted on different principles in the East, from those by which it is regulated in Europe. If a general, who is dreaded by an enemy, can be carried off by any piece of treachery, it is looked upon as fair as any stratagem in the field. — Hyder was well versed in business of this nature. — He was also skilled in the art of negotiation, and could look with great sagacity into the events of futurity.

' My master and his companions had heard much of this warrior, whose fame spread over all Indostan. They were dazzled with the honour of an invitation from so celebrated a man, and assembled in hundreds from every quarter. — To the number of twelve thousand the Fakirs sit down at table — Dishes succeeded dishes, and dainty dainty; for this was a day, on which, by the



express command of Hyder, they were to relax of their ordinary severity. — Good humour and self-importance shewed themselves over all the tattered assembly, which to a distant spectator, must have appeared not unlike a London rag fair. — The intoxication of honour and good cheer was universal, when Hyder makes his appearance. — The majesty of his countenance, in spite of the smile that then adorned it, struck terror into the congregation. — Silence and dread were universal. — The animating principle of a whole camp, which extended to the boundaries of our vision, stood before us. — After looking up three times to heaven, in adoration of the great Brama, he thus broke silence.

‘ Illustrious servants of the power whom we adore, I come to return you my thanks for the honour you have done me in accepting my invitation. I entertain the highest veneration for the sanctity of your lives, and the severity of your manners. You have shewn yourselves worthy of that master you all worship, by despising all sensual comforts. You have even gone farther: as if you possessed a mind in a state of perfect separation from body, you have continually inflicted on yourselves the most excruciating tortures, and these you have borne without testifying any sense of pain. You have rolled naked in the dirt, while the rude pebbles deprived you of the small fragments of skin your other sufferings had left behind. Illustrious servants of Brama, who see the chain of future events, Hyder Alli pities your sufferings. — Be not seen amongst men any more in the mean dress in which you now appear. Lay aside these rags that ill besit the ministers of heaven. Dress is a mark of distinction; and you who hold the first rank amongst men, should not be distinguished by filth. I have prepared cloaths that will defend you both from the cold and the heat, for well I know you have no money to purchase any for yourselves. My soldiers shall see the servants of Brama immediately dressed in them. Such is the council that Brama puts into the heart of Hyder Alli — Can I say more?’

‘ After this speech, he immediately went out. The whole assembly sat in silent vexation; for every individual was sensible, that his rags which seemed so worthless, contained great treasures. But it would have been in vain to remonstrate. Hyder’s soldiers perform with alacrity the charitable office of cloathing the naked, and took possession of the rags, which were heavy with gold, under the pretence of burying them; for what could be supposed of value in the tattered coverings of poor men that practised self denial! The operations of war which Hyder carried on at this time against the British, began to be languid for want of money; he saw the evil, and took this method of providing against it. Thus I escaped, with many thousands of the same species, and found myself in the possession of the great Hyder Alli.’

This story is well imagined, and not ill-told. It certainly sets Hyder Alli’s sagacity in a favourable light, and marks him out to

to us as what we have experienced him to be, a most formidable enemy. The part here attributed to him is, at least we may observe, more probable than that which our author has related of him in the sixth chapter of these Adventures, where, in his history of Miss Melville, he has made him a rival of Scipio's in the best part of his character. But for this adventure, and some others equally amusing, we must refer our readers to the book itself, which we may venture to recommend to them as a better entertainment than cards and dice, during the long evenings of the Christmas holydays.

*The History of John Juniper, Esq. alias Juniper Jack.* 3 vols. 12mo. 10s 6d. Baldwin.

Just before the publication of this work, it was whispered round, that it contained the *true* history of a no less respectable personage than the celebrated John Wilkes, shadowed out under the character of Juniper Jack; a circumstance which naturally raised the curiosity of the public, whose sanguine expectations will be miserably disappointed, when they discover, as we have found by a painful perusal, that, instead of exhibiting any entertaining traits of that great phenomenon, the reader will meet with little more than a series of uninteresting vulgar occurrences, and an awkward affectation of humour. It is said, notwithstanding, in the title-page, to be written by the author of the Adventures of a Guinea; a work we remember to have read with great pleasure, and which displayed indisputable marks of taste and genius. —But, Oh! what a falling-off is here!

*The Masqued Weddings.* 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 6s. Hookham.

Whether this novel was written in haste, we know not; but from the uninterrupted flow of the language, it must be read with precipitation. To compensate this inconvenience, however, it abounds with vivacity, and cannot fail of affording entertainment.

*The Female Monitor, or the History of Arabella and Lady Gay.* 8vo. 2s. stitched. Richardson.

The title of this production might suggest the idea, that it possesses at least some moral merit; but at the same time that it bears the marks of great affectation, it is far too frivolous to be useful.

*Lucinda; or the Self-devoted Daughter.* Small 8vo. 3s. Hookham.

An extravagant assemblage of terrible incidents, recited in bombastic narrative.



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